Universidade do Minho
Escola de Economia e Gestão

Nada Ismail Mohamed Morsi

A STUDY ON FOMSUMER'S POST-PURCHASE RESPONSE MECHANISM

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March 2023

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STATEMENT OF INTEGRITY

I hereby declare having conducted this academic work with integrity. I confirm that I have not used plagiarism or any form of undue use of information or falsification of results along the process leading to its elaboration.

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A STUDY ON FOMSUMER'S POST-PURCHASE RESPONSE MECHANISM

Abstract

The trepidation one goes through for not attaining a product commended by others, creates the "missing out" phenomenon, leading consumers to imitate the behaviour of others. Consumers whose purchase decisions are driven by FoMO have been labeled as "Fomsumers". Fear of Missing Out (FoMO) is considered a powerful motivational force, recently used as an appeal by companies, to trigger and influence purchasing decisions. A research gap exists concerning the understanding of how this prevalent recent trending phenomenon affects the consumers' post-purchase responses. Thus, the study aims at furthering the knowledge about FoMO and Fomsumers' purchase decisions, with a focus on, analyzing its post-purchase responses towards FoMO appeals.

Interviews with 57 respondents, using the Critical Incident Technique, were analyzed to obtain an in-depth view of the Fomsumers' post-decision cognitive and emotional states, as well as their behavioural patterns, resulting from purchase decisions stimulated by FoMO appeals. Although findings have shown that there are short-term positive post-purchase consequences, on the longer term, negative consequences are dominant. Cognitive and emotional post-purchase responses, such as dissatisfaction, psychological and financial distress, sadness, regret, disappointment, guilt, and shame, were found to result in different behavioural responses towards the brand. Fomsumers were then segmented into four typologies based on their intent to refer to the brand and repeat similar purchases in the future: "Butterflies", "Devotees", "Endorsers", and "Shopaholics".

The current investigation offers a theoretical advancement by developing a conceptual FoMO response model, which contributes to the academic literature on consumer behaviour and marketing. Besides this study serves as a practical tool for consumers to minimize purchase decisions triggered by FoMO and guides companies and marketers towards a thorough understanding of the long-term impact that FoMO appeals have on brands.

Keywords: Fear of missing out, FoMO appeals; FoMO, Fomsumer, Post-purchase behaviour.

Um estudo sobre o mecanismo de resposta pós-compra do Fomsumer

Resumo

A ansiedade sentida por não obter um produto recomendado por outros gera um fenómeno de “medo de perder uma oportunidade” (FoMO), que leva os consumidores a tomar decisões que imitam o comportamento dos outros. Os consumidores cujas decisões de compra são impulsionadas pelo FoMO foram rotulados como "Fomsumers". O FoMO é considerado uma poderosa força motivadora, recentemente utilizada como um apelo de marketing para influenciar as decisões de compra, cujas consequências nas respostas pós-compra dos Consumidores ainda não são totalmente conhecidas. Esta investigação visa aprofundar o conhecimento sobre FoMO e as decisões de compra dos Fomsumers, centrando-se em particular na compreensão das respostas cognitivas, emocionais e comportamentais pós-compra.

Entrevistas com 57 respondentes, utilizando a Técnica de Incidente Crítico, foram analisadas para obter uma visão aprofundada dos estados cognitivos e emocionais pós-compra dos Fomsumers, bem como dos seus padrões comportamentais resultantes das decisões de compra estimuladas pelos apelos de FoMO. Embora os resultados tenham mostrado consequências positivas pós-compra a curto prazo, a longo prazo, as consequências negativas são dominantes. As respostas cognitivas e emocionais pós-compra, tais como insatisfação, angústia psicológica e financeira, tristeza, arrependimento, desilusão, culpa e vergonha, resultaram em diferentes comportamentos relacionados com a marca. A partir das respostas comportamentais diferenciadas, os consumidores foram classificados em quatro perfis com características, decisões de compra e pós-compra diferenciadas: "Borboletas", "Devotos", "Apoiantes" e "Viciados em Compras".

Esta investigação oferece contributos teóricos ao desenvolver um modelo conceptual de resposta ao FoMO que contribui para a literatura em marketing e comportamento do marketing. Adicionalmente, o estudo serve como uma ferramenta prática para os consumidores minimizarem as decisões de compra desencadeadas pelo FoMO e orienta as empresas e os profissionais de marketing para uma compreensão do impacto de longo prazo dos apelos do FoMO nas marcas.

Palavras-chave: Apelos FoMO, Comportamento pós-compra, Fear of Missing Out, FoMO,

Fomsumer.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The Fear of Missing Out (FoMO) concept can be defined as the anxiety felt from observing others having rewarding experiences from which one is absent (Riordan et al., 2015). In the marketing and consumer behaviour contexts, FoMO is regarded as an emotional deprivation experienced when missing out on experiences or a tempting product that others possess (Hodkinson, 2019), and is considered one of the most addictive behavioural patterns (Aydin et al., 2019). Thus, companies tend to widely use FoMO appeals to trigger purchasing intentions and successfully influence purchasing decisions (Abel et al., 2016; Argan et al., 2018; Aydin et al., 2019; Çelik et al., 2019; Hodkinson, 2019; Kang, Cui, et al., 2019; Kang, Son, et al., 2019; Kang & Ma, 2020; Mcdermott, 2017; Suresh & Biswas, 2019). FoMO appeals were found to spark off unplanned behaviours, such as conspicuous buying (Kang et al., 2020; Kang, Son, et al., 2019), conformity consumption (Kang & Ma, 2020), compulsive shopping (Aydin et al., 2019; Çelik et al., 2019; Darrat et al., 2016; Okazaki et al., 2019; Suresh & Biswas, 2019), and impulse purchasing (Aydin et al., 2019; Çelik et al., 2019).

Several authors stressed that FoMO, as a concept, only started to appear in academic research in 2010, which makes it a recent trending topic in marketing studies that remains under-researched (Argan et al., 2018; Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018; Baker et al., 2016; Hodkinson, 2019; Wegmann et al., 2017). The growing popularity of social media has led to an increase in FoMO-induced consumption behaviour among consumers (Çelik et al., 2019). Marketing activities on social media have increased FoMO-induced consumption behaviour, especially among consumers diagnosed with FoMO, named *Fomsumers* (Argan et al., 2018; Jupowicz-Ginalska, 2019).

Although the relationship between social media, digital marketing communication, and FoMO is clear, the academic research on FoMO marketing is still in its infancy (Jupowicz-Ginalska, 2019), especially concerning the understanding of how consumers cope with FoMO and how it is related to purchase behaviour (Zhang et al., 2020), as well as the consequences that FoMO appeals have on future consumer responses (Baker et al., 2016). Research is needed to investigate the consequences of FoMO-induced consumption, as it has been suggested to result in negative post-purchase cognitive and affective dissonances that later translate into lower repurchase intention (Abel et al., 2016; Argan et al., 2018; Balakrishnan et al., 2020; Çelik et al., 2019; Conlin et al., 2016; Hayran et al., 2016;

Hodkinson, 2019; Kahn & Louie, 1990; Kang, Son, et al., 2019). FoMO has been found to induce emotional, financial, and behavioural distress in the long-run (Darrat et al., 2016). Companies should not focus solely on generating short-term transactions, but also on increasing customer satisfaction, repurchase intentions, and positive word-of-mouth referrals (Hayran et al., 2016); all of which have a critical influence on the long-term performance of the retailer (Suresh & Biswas, 2019).

This apparent contradiction between companies' strategic goals of promoting long-term relationships with their customers, and the potential negative effect of FoMO on these relationships, calls for more research about the effect that FoMO has on consumers' behaviour and decision-making process (Argan et al., 2018; Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018; Hayran et al., 2016). Likewise, researching the consumers' response toFoMO appeals is of great importance to comprehend these response mechanisms (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018; Baker et al., 2016; Hodkinson, 2019; Wegmann et al., 2017).

Therefore, the purpose of this research is to investigate Fomsumers' post-purchase cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses to purchase decisions driven by FoMO appeals, in particular, it aims to answer the following research question: *What are Fomsumers' post-purchase cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses to purchase decisions driven by FoMO appeals?* In answering this question, the study helps attain four purposes: first, to identify the different marketing appeals inducing FoMO in Fomsumers. Second, to identify the types of purchases for which FoMO is more relevant. Third, to explore different purchase decisions and consumption behaviours associated with FoMO marketing appeals. Fourth, to investigate the post-decision cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses resulting from purchase decisions stimulated by FoMO appeals.

Hence, a qualitative study, relying on Critical Incident Technique through semi-structured interviews with 57 participants, was implemented to provide insight into the consequences of using FoMO-induced appeals. Non-probability purposive sampling technique was applied to extract credible data from knowledgeable participants. Relevant insights were generated from participants' responses using content analysis. The findings resulted in the development of a FoMO response model that offers a thorough explanation of the Fomsumer buying-decision process. In addition, the study segmented similar behavioural responses into four main typologies in terms of the degree of referral and degree of repurchase intention.

The study contributes to providing a better understanding of the effects of FoMO-induced consumption as well as increasing awareness among practitioners and consumers of possible ways to reduce the negative consequences of purchase behaviours induced by FoMO appeals, particularly to the most vulnerable consumers. Argan et al. (2018) encouraged thoroughly exploring the attitude and behaviours of Fomsumers, referring to them as "the consumers of the future", as they represent the characteristics of today's consumers of social media. The internet youth generation has grown faster, is more connected, more direct, and more informed, which is the opposite scenario from the past generations (Gillani, 2012). Besides, the study starts a discussion on the need for companies to look critically at their FoMO-appealing strategies (Tranfield et al., 2003). This study also encourages further research on such interesting and important phenomenon, which is already playing a great role in social-media-dominated marketing.

The current study is composed of five main parts. First, the study commences by displaying the evolution of FoMO as a concept. Then, presenting what prior literature states on FoMO's different contexts, definitions, triggers, and consequences. The second part of the study exhibits the conceptual framework that equips the empirical study. The third part is fixated on the methodology, elaborating on the research question and objectives of the study, philosophical views, research design, research method, sampling technique, and data analysis methods used. Next, the study presents the main findings of the qualitative study comprised of the descriptive and analytical results. The final part of the study is dedicated to the main conclusion, where limitations are provided, and future areas that one would not want to miss out on, are offered.

2. Literature Review

This chapter provides a comprehension of the FoMO concept and how it influences buying decisions, specifically the post-purchase consequences resulting from FoMO appeals. Thus, the discussion begins by displaying varying definitions given to describe FoMO, and how it is applied in different contexts. Then, a thorough comprehension is given on what prior studies found concerning FoMO, marketing, and consumption patterns. Next, the study expounds on the FoMO appeals used in the marketing context. Afterward, arguments are displayed around how the FoMO phenomenon is associated with the buying decision processes, identifying the triggers and consequences of using FoMO as an appeal by companies. Thereafter, relevant theories are highlighted, to help better understand Fomsumers' buying process, specifically the post-purchase stages. Research gaps and opportunities for further studies are stated next. Finally, following the literature analysis, a conclusion is laid out.

2.1. Conceptualization of FoMO

FoMO is referred to as a phenomenon embedded in popular culture and the youth psyche (Argan et al., 2018; Hodkinson, 2019; Kang, Cui, et al., 2019) that holds different connotations and is studied in various academic fields, including psychology, education, sociology, medicine, sports, public health, social media, as well as marketing and consumer behaviour (Abel et al., 2016; Lai et al., 2016; Przybylski et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2020). FoMO was first mentioned in academia as a potential explanation behind consumers' switching behaviour from one brand to another, choosing variety over loyalty, which in turn engendered brand crisis (Herman, 2000). FoMO is regarded as a key concept that explains consumer behaviour in the context of social media marketing (Zhang et al., 2020).

To understand the nuances of each FoMO definition and have the ability to comprehend how they are related to one another; the study synthetizes the main definitions of FoMO offered by prior literature and presents them in Table 1. Such table provides a clear and concise overview of the concept and its different aspects. When approached as an internally initiated trait-based characteristic,

FoMO can be defined as a "pervasive apprehension that others might be having rewarding experiences from which one is absent" (Przybylski et al., 2013, p. 1841). Meanwhile, social media has grown, allowing everyone to easily explore potential rewarding experiences (Zhang et al., 2020). Those who are highly engaged on social media platforms were found to experience intense feelings of FoMO (Przybylski et al., 2013). Accordingly, another definition was given to fit FoMO in the context of social media marketing, referring to FoMO as the "feeling that something is happening on social networks and you are not part of it" (Gil et al., 2015, p. 51). Individuals were found to experience more FoMO through observing what their close friends are doing and buying on their social networks, which in turn increases their desire to acquire the same products and experiences consumed by their friends (Good & Hyman, 2020). Such finding allowed the conceptualization of FoMO to be slightly adjusted, to be defined as the "uneasy and often all-consuming sense that friends or others are having rewarding experiences from which one is absent" (Riordan et al., 2015, p. 1).

Table 1: Previous definitions of fear of missing out

Reference	Definitions
Przybylski et al. (2013)	"A phenomenon characterized by the desire to stay continually connected with what others are doing and a pervasive apprehension that others might be having rewarding experiences from which one is absent." (p. 1841)
Gil et al. (2015)	"Feeling that something is happening on social networks, and you are not part of it" (p.51)
Riordan et al. (2015)	"The uneasy and often all-consuming sense that friends or others are having rewarding experiences from which one is absent." (p.1)
Hayran et al. (2016)	"Emotional state that individuals encounter when missing experiences relevant to the self." (p.468)
Good & Hyman (2020)	"Apprehension about not acquiring a product or engaging in a (consumption) experience extolled by other people." (p. 331)
Z. Zhang et al. (2020)	"Fear of missing an experience that can help an individual maintain or enhance her/his private and/or social self." (p.4)

Researchers began to highlight the underlying social motivation of those who are high in FoMO, suggesting different dimensional conceptualization, including the need to belong and social anxiety (Abel et al., 2016; Kang, Son, et al., 2019; Lai et al., 2016). Scholars continued to define FoMO as an emotional state that individuals encounter when missing experiences relevant to the self (Hayran et al., 2016). A broader conceptualization of FOMO was then given, positing that there is

social and personal bidimensionality in FoMO, defining it as the "fear of missing an experience that can help an individual maintain or enhance her/his private and/or social self" (Zhang et al., 2020, p. 4). Social FoMO is the degree to which consumers miss out on experiences others enjoy, while personal FoMO is the degree to which consumers miss out on experiences they had wished for themselves (Zhang et al., 2020). Such conceptualization allowed FoMO to be identified in the online and offline context (Zhang et al., 2020). Building on definitions of FoMO, consumer-centric FoMO was introduced as a concept within marketing and consumption contexts, referring to it as the "apprehension about not acquiring a product or engaging in a consumption experience extolled by other people" (Good & Hyman, 2020, p. 331).

FoMO has become a hot topic (Xi et al., 2022). Consequently, prior literature continued to explore and explain the negative consequences of FoMO as a trait-base, and found that it is associated with mental and physical health; arguing that it causes fatigue, stress, lower mindful attention, deprivation of sleep, (Milyavskaya et al., 2018), lower self-esteem (Park & Kramer, 2019), higher alcoholic consumption (Riordan et al., 2015), and maladjustment to college life (Alt, 2018). FoMO has also been argued to cause problematic behaviours such as smartphone overuse (Elhai et al., 2016), phubbing (smartphone addiction) (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2016), and intense usage and engagement in social media platforms (Abel et al., 2016; Alt & Boniel-Nissim, 2018; Beyens, Frison, & Eggermont, 2016). Although the online environment is shown to be often associated with FoMO, it has been argued that the phenomenon is not an entirely new concept (Abel et al., 2016). FoMO is a historically rooted human behaviour element, that existed long before the Internet and social media (Franchina et al., 2018; Hodkinson, 2019; Milyavskaya et al., 2018).

Deci & Ryan (2008) proposed Self-Determination theory (SDT) as a useful theory for providing thorough comprehension of the FoMO phenomenon, where individuals who report higher levels of FoMO would signify lower satisfaction levels of basic psychological needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Przybylski et al., 2013). Competence refers to how well individuals make choices; being responsible and independent when making choices is associated with autonomy; and connecting with others describes relatedness (Deci et al., 1989). Psychological needs such as autonomy and relatedness were further argued to boost the level of FoMO, and ultimately lower social media satisfaction resulting from the information overload on social media platforms (Bui et al., 2022). Heavy social media users who are high in autonomy fear missing out on the enormous quantity of information available on social media platforms, and thus expose themselves to

information overload to prove they are not influenced by others (Bui et al., 2022). Individuals who are high in their relatedness fear social exclusion, and hence continuously, stay connected on social media platforms, allowing negative emotions to be felt from the overload of information being exposed (Alt, 2018; Bui et al., 2022). Mindless use of social media engagement was argued to lead to negative mental health outcomes for consumers (Chan et al., 2022).

Literature continues to argue that FoMO is magnified under certain conditions, such as the increased number of friends consumers have on social media platforms, the longer time spent surfing the internet, and the amount of content being exposed to (Blease, 2015). Accordingly, consumers who were diagnosed with FoMO were shown to be more inclined to buy online than offline (Suresh & Biswas, 2019), resulting in addictive consumption behavioural patterns (Aydin et al., 2019). In the social-media-immersed context, consumers nowadays - specifically among youngsters - are hooked on social media platforms, to exchange real-time messages and information on what they do and buy, access the lives of others, stay constantly updated on potentially rewarding experiences, and special offers from their favorite brands (Abel et al., 2016; Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018; Beyens et al., 2016; Bright & Logan, 2018; Conlin et al., 2016; Elhai et al., 2018; Hu & Wei, 2013; Mcdermott, 2017; Milyavskaya et al., 2018; Morrison & Gore, 2010; Przybylski et al., 2013; Riordan et al., 2018; Tomczyk & Selmanagic-Lizde, 2018; Wang et al., 2018). Social activities and acquisitions that individuals enjoy are argued to be observed more intensely on social media platforms (Alt, 2018; Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018; Argan et al., 2018; Aygar et al., 2019; Baker et al., 2016; Barry, Sidoti, Briggs, Reiter, & Lindsey, 2017; Can & Satici, 2019; Fox & Moreland, 2015; Franchina et al., 2018; Hayran et al., 2016; Mcdermott, 2017; Milyavskaya et al., 2018; Przybylski et al., 2013; Rifkin, Cindy, & Kahn, 2015; Tomczyk & Selmanagic-Lizde, 2018; Wegmann et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2020). FoMO then intensifies when consumers begin feeling left out by observing others' private life exhibited on social media along with acknowledging all the potentially-missed possibilities (Argan et al., 2018; Doster, 2013; Franchina et al., 2018; Hayran et al., 2020). Repeated images on social media intended to be perceived as real, raises customers' perception of how their lives ought to be, in terms of material possessions (Richins, 1995). As a consequence, consumers start being driven, not by their own motivations, but by a new basic motivation: the desire to consume all possibilities, driven by the fear to miss out (Herman, 2000).

FoMO is proposed to be a powerful stimulus, for it involves a negative feeling that missing out on a consumption experience will make one left behind, personally and/or socially (Zhang et al.,

2020). Other scholars suggest that marketers use factors underlying FoMO as self-esteem and anxiety to trigger buying decisions (Abel et al., 2016). Psychologically, individuals were found to experience a negative affective state when they find the fleeting favourable and self-relevant experiences and acquisitions possessed by their peers, and not them, causing lower self-esteem (Abel et al., 2016; Argan et al., 2018; Hayran et al., 2016). FoMO has been pursued as a strategy to generate a sense of missing out in the minds of consumers (Çelik et al., 2019), prompting unplanned buying decisions as impulsive and compulsive consumptions (Hodkinson, 2019). Accordingly, FoMO could be treated as a transient phenomenon that relates meaningfully to consumers' attitudes and buying behaviour (Good & Hyman, 2020). Such a phenomenon can be externally stimulated by some triggers affecting the buying decision process and behaviours consumers engage in and their consequent cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses.

2.2. FoMO and Consumer Buying Behaviour

Literature is scarce on FoMO's outcomes in relation to marketing and consumer behaviour fields (Neumann et al., 2023). Very few published marketing FoMO-related articles claim that FoMO can be embedded in a consumer's buying decision process (Hayran et al., 2016; Rifkin et al., 2015). Researchers have given more attention to the behavioural and psychological aspects of FoMO, while very little consideration was given to the marketing and consumerism aspects. There seems to be a dearth of studies on the effect of FoMO on consumer behaviour (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018; Argan et al., 2018; Lim, 2016), consumption and marketing (Argan et al., 2018) and how it could be used wisely and – possibly more importantly - ethically by companies in designing social marketing strategies (Hodkinson, 2019). Studies regarding FoMO as a concept have only started to grow in depth since 2010, which makes it a recent trending topic in marketing studies, that is growing in popularity, but remains under-researched (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018; Baker et al., 2016; Hodkinson, 2019; Wegmann et al., 2017). FoMO is an evolving concept in consumer behaviour, specifically in the social media marketing context (Zhang et al., 2020).

To identify existing literature debating FoMO, a search was conducted in June 2020 across Scopus, Web of Science, and EBSCO bibliographic databases using the keywords FOMO OR "Fear of Missing Out" combined with various keywords related to marketing and consumer behaviour, such as

“marketing”, “consum* behavio$r”, "Promot*" "Consum*" "Buy*" , "Sale", "Purchas*" , "advert*”. The criteria were defined only to select studies written in English, published in peer-reviewed articles and unpublished articles, such as conference proceedings and doctoral theses. Duplicate records in different databases were removed before the screening. After reading the abstract and keywords, only articles that addressed FoMO in the context of marketing and consumer behaviour and targeting the young population were considered. This process resulted in the identification of 40 articles (Appendix 1). The results show that most of the articles related to FoMO began to be published starting from 2013, which is an indication of the need to further examine and explore the FoMO within a marketing context and consumption, particularly the consumers’ response towards FoMO-based appeals (Hodkinson, 2019). Thus, scholars suggest conducting studies that focus on FoMO and its relationship with marketing, consumption, and consumer behaviour, especially that of young consumers (Argan et al., 2018; Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018). Figure 1 shows the distribution of the articles related to FoMO and its relationship with consumer behaviour over time. Appendix 1 offers a summary of the findings of previous academic FoMO-related research in marketing and consumer behaviour.

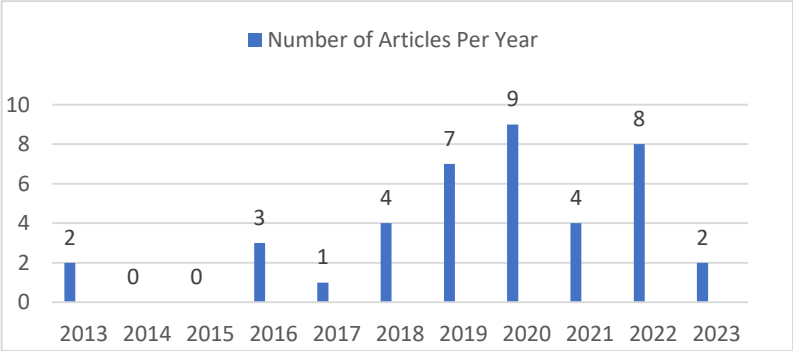


Figure 1. Distribution of publications regarding FoMO and consumer behaviour over time

FoMO is argued to be key for scholars concerned with consumer behaviour studies and for marketing practitioners (Good & Hyman, 2021). Yet, limited studies began to explore FoMO and its effect on consumer behaviour. Hayran et al. (2016) took the initiative and explored FoMO’s antecedents and consequences in real-life context and linked it to consumer behaviour. According to Hayran et al. (2016), experiencing a positive attitude towards available options and perceiving them

as personally significant led to FoMO, ultimately resulting in reduced likelihood of future repeat purchases by the Fomsumer.

Consumers were found to report FoMO if there is threat to public-self generated by depriving consumers of accessing social media and accordingly being unaware of what is being said about them (Zhang et al., 2020). Also, FoMO is felt when consumers lose an opportunity of a purchase that might have enhanced one's image and strengthen their private-self (Zhang et al., 2020). Individuals were shown to extensively use social media platforms to promote, market, and brand one's self (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018).

Hence, scholars developed a conceptual approach to better explain the relationship between FoMO and consumerism in the age of social media, referred to as fomsumerism (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018). Fomsumerism can be regarded as a concept associating feelings as FoMO with consumption (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018). It represents the underlying consumption patterns and behaviours in the online context triggered by FoMO (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018). One of the key reasons for fomsumerism to occur is share-based interaction, where consumers are constantly surfing social media platforms in an attempt to elicit praise (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018). Scholars continue to debate how cognitions, emotions, and behaviours displayed within social media platforms shape fomsumerism (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018).

Consumers who make purchases because of FoMO are named Fomsumers (Argan et al., 2018). Argan et al. (2018) propose the term Fomsumer to define "a person who tends to the consumption tendency because of the fear of missing out" (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018, p.111). Fomsumers differ from traditional consumers, as they represent the characteristics of today's internet and social media consumers (Argan et al., 2018), and are expected to be the consumers of the future (Argan et al., 2018; Suresh & Biswas, 2019). Because of the internet, the youth generation has grown faster, becoming more connected, more direct, and more informed, which is the opposite scenario from past generations (Gillani, 2012). Social-media-driven consumers tend to seek more social acceptance than traditional consumers in social media, and they are generally more available and able to take part in platforms of the new media (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018).

Fomsumers are usually low in self-esteem and consequently, fearing social exclusion, they drive towards the use of social media to interact with others, improve their social competence and deepen social bonds (Argan et al., 2018; Suresh & Biswas, 2019). One of the main characteristics of

Fomsumers is how they base their satisfaction on social comparisons, rather than their own internal world (Argan et al., 2018). Another characteristic observed is how Fomsumers appreciate and cherish missed events more than events they attended (Mcdermott, 2017).

Although knowledge about Fomsumers' behaviour is still limited, some attempts have been made to further its understanding. For example, Hodkinson (2019) presents a general conceptual framework drawn for the behaviours of Fomsumers before, during, and after the decision-making process. Yim et al. (2020) conducted an empirical study that explored traits that might influence Fomsumers' decision making towards hedonic sports consumption, where they compared three different generations (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials) categorized by (Markert, 2004). The authors found that consumption patterns towards hedonic purchases between Generation X and Millennials were similar, where the latter displayed strong desire to constantly stay connected and engaged on social media platforms, make buying decisions based on peer pressure, and were found to demonstrate more anticipated positive emotions when envisioning future hedonic purchases (Yim et al., 2020). Neumann (2020) has found that the cognitive and emotional responses in the pre-decision phase of Fomsumers are almost the same in children, adolescents, young adults, adults, and older adults. It was revealed that positive or negative emotional responses towards FoMO appeals were encountered in the pre-decision phase and not solely post-purchasing (Hodkinson, 2019). Scholars argue that negative prior emotions held as anxiety, lower self-esteem, and depression encourage consumption through constantly being engaged on social media platforms (Suresh & Biswas, 2019), where consumers fear missing out on opportunities offered in the online context that might generate potential regret if not taken (Hodkinson, 2019). However, other scholars have argued that FoMO appeals increase the likelihood of purchase intention towards hedonic purchases through anticipated elation, referring to the prior positive emotions held towards the desired purchase, and self-enhancement which is the boost of self-image perceived from others when consuming the purchase (Good & Hyman, 2021).

The need to increase one's self-esteem and satisfy recognition needs pressures Fomsumers to consume luxury brands, fearing missing out on purchases that indicate social status and allow them to belong to their communities (Kang et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020). Consumption patterns of Fomsumers are driven by social comparison rather than satisfaction with one's own internal world, causing the decision-making process to be unconsciously made (Argan et al., 2018). Studies have shown that consumptions driven by FoMO can result in negative post-purchase cognitions, emotions,

and behaviours (Çelik et al., 2019; Hodkinson, 2019; Suresh & Biswas, 2019), ultimately damaging the customer-brand relationship over time (Hayran et al., 2020). Therefore, it is of great importance to comprehend these response mechanisms as argued by Hodkinson (2019), where the scholar highlights the lack of knowledge about consumers' response to FoMO-based marketing appeals, which are considered to be manipulative. Marketers are advised to consider the ethics and legalities behind using advertising messages inducing FoMO that eventually affect negatively the general well-being of consumers (Russel & Rogers, 2019).

Thus, it is noted how FoMO has been viewed as a powerful marketing tool that encourages different behaviours and experiences to be made (Neumann, 2020). The literature identifies some triggers marketers use to infuse FoMO through their advertising messages, emphasizing on what is missed out if individuals do not respond to the appeals, including promotion and offers (Wiltermuth & Gino, 2013), trends (Lim, 2016), and scarcity appeals (John et al., 2018).

2.3. FoMO Triggers

FoMO is a very powerful motivational force (Wiltermuth & Gino, 2013) that can be externally triggered by social and marketing stimuli (Argan et al., 2018; Hodkinson, 2019; Mcdermott, 2017). Thus, companies saw a clear opportunity to use FoMO in their strategic marketing of products (Mcdermott, 2017). Instead of looking at FoMO as a self-initiated individual trait, Hodkinson (2019) was the first to investigate how companies use FoMO appeal in marketing, and how it affects the decision-making process of consumers. The external FoMO appeal typology is classified according to the mode of initiation, whether in person or impersonal; and the purpose, whether commercial or non-commercial (Hodkinson, 2019). The researcher defined non-commercial FoMO appeals as temptations initiated personally by friends, family members, and close circles, or impersonally via observing social events and unique experiences made by others on social media platforms (Hodkinson, 2019). Commercial FoMO appeals however, are "any initiating appeal, whether in person or impersonal, originating from an organization, in which FoMO or 'missing out' is mentioned or specifically implied and the context of which is the stimulation of demand, usage or purchase of a

product" (Hodkinson, 2019, p.67). Commercial FoMO appeal was found to be initiated either personally through salespersons or impersonally through advertisements (Hodkinson, 2019).

FoMO effectiveness in advertising has not been studied in-depth (Neumann, 2020). Accordingly, marketers ought to consider the cognitive and affective responses generated by FoMO appeals that influence the pre-decision-making process of Fomsumers (Hodkinson, 2019). The effect of FoMO appeals differ from one person to another depending on situational factors, including social pressure, cognitive responses, such as assessment of source credibility and trustworthiness, as well as effective response, such as emotions felt (Neumann, 2020). Emotion evaluation triggers the purchasing intention, and it ranges from the memory of previous experiences to competitive feelings, fear, anticipated regret (Hodkinson, 2019; Wiltermuth & Gino, 2013), and/or anxiety of isolation and desire to belong (Kang, Cui, et al., 2019). One of the potential emotions individuals would attempt to avoid is the regret of choices made in the future (Loomes & Sugden, 1982). Future regret also referred to as anticipated regret, is associated with the discomfort feeling of uncertainty accompanying FoMO-initiated decisions (Hodkinson, 2019).

The decision triggered by FoMO appeal is done under uncertainty, causing individuals to feel unsure about the choices they make, which later raises the level of fear of missing the greater opportunity and, accordingly, influences the decision of the consumer (Hodkinson, 2019). Cognition evaluation includes the credibility of the appeal or source, level of perceived risk, opportunity cost, and perceived scarcity; all affecting the decision being made before the purchase of products and services using FoMO appeals (Hodkinson, 2019). Cognitive evaluation in the pre-decision process of Fomsumers could be clustered into social comparison and doubting the credibility of judgement (Neumann, 2020). Social comparison involves comparing oneself with others' lives, in terms of consumption patterns (Neumann, 2020), which eventually increases FoMO through observation of multiple social activities displayed by others, specifically on social media platforms (Milyavskaya et al., 2018). As a consequence of social observation, individuals start asking themselves what could have been if they had decided differently and thus doubt the credibility of their judgements (Neumann, 2020). Doubting the credibility of one's judgement occurs post-decisions made, where individuals remorse when noticing assessments of alternatives to purchases chosen (Neumann, 2020). Those who are high in FoMO, find others' experiences more fun and more exciting than their current activities (Rifkin et al., 2015).

Promotion was considered one of the marketing appeals effective at triggering FoMO in consumers (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018; Aydinli et al., 2014; Bright & Logan, 2018; Xu & Huang, 2014). Attractive offers and discounts, for a limited time, tend to allure consumers into purchasing unnecessary items that they may regret later (Rajagopal et al., 2019). Consumers are prompted to make impulse purchases when being exposed to promotion appeals, fearing to miss out on the opportunity to save money by paying less (Cook & Yurchisin, 2017; Jefimova & Parts, 2021; Xu & Huang, 2014). Findings show that price discounts and buy-one-get-one-free offers are the most effective promotion strategies to eventually prompt impulse purchasing decisions (Coley & Burgess, 2003; Liao et al., 2009; Rook, 1987; Shi et al., 2005; Sinha & Smith, 2000). This impulse buying behaviour in response to promotion appeals could be explained by Self-Control theory proposed by Keinan and Kivetz 2008), referring to the extent individuals would indulge in or avoid responding to opportunities induced by FoMO appeals (Abel et al., 2016). Self-control increases one's inhibition system, allowing individuals to avoid responding to temptations and stimuli induced by marketers (Keinan & Kivetz, 2008). In addition, findings showed that in the online context, offering price discounts work well for hedonic and inexpensive products, and bonus pack works great for expensive and utilitarian products (Xu & Huang, 2014). Other scholars argue that different promotion techniques should be selected according to the product type (Liao et al., 2009). For instance, monetary-based promotion would suit best utilitarian products, while non-monetary-based promotion would be more appropriate for hedonic products (Liao et al., 2009).

Marketers are highly aware of the intrinsic value accompanying scarcity and are using it by claiming uniqueness and excessive sales to make the FoMO appeal more effective (Hodkinson, 2019; John et al., 2018; Lim, 2016). Studies suggest that the desire to own a product is triggered by scarcity through uniqueness since value is enhanced when the product is perceived as scarce (Brock, 1968; Fromkin, 1970; Synder, 1992). Products can be scarce because they are either limited in terms of quantity or time, and thus scarcity comes in many forms as limited supply and limited time to indicate uniqueness of offerings (Hodkinson, 2019). Scholars categorize scarcity as supply or demand scarcity, where supply-based scarcity can be manipulated by marketers through limiting the availability of the products offered, and thus allowing only few numbers of consumers to purchase, while demand-based scarcity occurs when there is overmuch demand for a product despite abundance of goods, that it becomes hard to acquire, and thus spurring scarcity (van Herpen et al., 2009).

There is a debate around which of the supply-based or demand-based scarcity triggers more FoMO in consumers, for it has been stated that not all scarcity appeals induce FoMO and that using the slogan "Don't Miss Out" will not necessarily elicit fear (Zhang et al., 2020). Some scholars argue that scarcity implied through commonality is more likely to influence decision-making than scarcity due to product's uniqueness, as it was shown that the more demand identified for a certain product, the higher the level of scarcity encountered by consumers, due to perceiving demand as a sign of quality that should not be missed out on (van Herpen et al., 2009). Limited supply has been confirmed more effective in triggering impulse purchases than limited time, when using scarcity appeal (Cook & Yurchisin, 2017).

Bandwagon effect has been found to mediate relationship between perceived scarcity and impulse purchases, where scholars argue that trends would increase the perception of scarcity and eventually allow consumers to make instant purchases out of fear of missing out on the highly demanded products (Zhang et al., 2021). FoMO triggered by scarcity is argued to advance through expanding social circles and desiring competitive edge over peers, resulting in purchases that enhance self-concept (John et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020). Scarcity was shown to be more associated with consumption of hedonic goods since they serve as a tool or symbol for enhancing one's self-expression (John et al., 2018). Thus, supply-based scarcity was argued to induce higher FoMO compared to demand-based supply, when consuming hedonic conspicuous goods, as Fomsumers were interested to buy hedonic goods that nobody had (John et al., 2018), and also because Fomsumers would think that the more expensive the product is, the more valuable it becomes Zhang et al., 2021). Fomsumers behavioural responses towards scarcity appeal could be explained through Uniqueness Theory proposed by Fromkin & Snyder (1980), according to which consumers would be tempted to purchase scarce products to satisfy their need of being unique and special.

Scholars have also found that peer pressure is a significant trait in millennial consumption behaviour that can be used to trigger FoMO (Yim et al., 2020). Friends, family, and influencers on social media platforms were found to shape Fomsumers' decision-making (Jefimova & Parts, 2021). This is because FoMO was found to be highly associated with the fear of negative peer judgement among teenagers and youngsters (Gillani, 2012; Przybylski et al., 2013; Tomczyk & Selmanagic-Lizde, 2018). Family and friends transmit FoMO through their face-to-face communication or impersonally through text messages and social media platforms and were suggested to be more influential than

salespeople because they are regarded as more trustworthy (Hodkinson, 2019). Opinions formed towards a specific product or brand were shown to be influenced a great deal by other individuals' input on social media networks (Abel et al., 2016; Argan et al., 2018). Thus, marketers and advertisers were advised to design messages that trigger FoMO among youngsters, by focusing on identifying the trends and mainstreams highly demanded and desired for consumption (Kang, Cui, et al., 2019; Kang et al., 2020; Kang, Son, et al., 2019; Kang & Ma, 2020; Suresh & Biswas, 2019). Marketers trigger FoMO through peer pressure when they encourage consumers to share information and opinions about their products on social media platforms, in exchange for incentives (Lim, 2016), which, consequently, allow the brand to be communicated to a wider range of consumers (Bright & Logan, 2018) and increases the chances of generating more sales (Suresh & Biswas, 2019b). Social sharing was concluded to be one of the factors affecting FoMO (Aygar et al., 2019), when individuals were found to mimic others' behaviour (Kang et al., 2020; Kang & Ma, 2020), either to belong or to reduce the anxiety of isolation; both of which are psychological traits associated with FoMO (Kang, Cui, et al., 2019). Fomsumers would not want to miss out on the opportunity of getting the popular deal and having the privilege to announce and share it with the world, and – subsequently - fitting in (Scheinbaum et al., 2020). Other Fomsumers, who are constantly on social media platforms, would engage in conspicuous consumption and purchase expensive products because of FoMO, fearing social exclusion and peer pressure (Abel et al., 2016).

Consumption patterns triggered by peer pressure appeal could be explained using the Belongingness theory (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), which highlights the effectiveness of peer pressure as a trigger in prompting decisions based on the fear of social exclusion and the anxiety accompanying loss of belonging (Abel et al., 2016; Balakrishnan et al., 2020). Scholars point out that the most important thing for Fomsumers is the post they share of what is being consumed, and not the core value the products or events bring them, thus creating an entirely new buying motivation established by social media and peer pressure (Argan et al., 2018). Hence, from a social perspective, FoMO appeals have a higher chance of being successful at influencing consumption, when peer pressure is present (Hodkinson, 2019).

2.4. Purchase Behaviours Triggered by FoMO

FOMO is bringing a new perspective to marketing strategies, where consumers' decisions are influenced by the desire to present the self on social media platforms, through flashy consumption instead of modest purchases (Argan et al., 2018; Hodkinson, 2019; Kang, Son, et al., 2019). In the online context, FoMO-induced appeals used in marketing and communication activities encourage unplanned buying-decisions of consumers, such as impulsive (Çelik et al., 2019), compulsive (Aydin et al., 2019; Suresh & Biswas, 2019), and conformity buying (Kang, Cui, et al., 2019; Kang et al., 2020; Kang & Ma, 2020).

FoMO triggers impulsive buying behaviour by creating a sudden, powerful, and persistent desire to buy something instantly (Rook, 1987; Scheinbaum et al., 2020), without any prior planning and with less rational decision-making (Dittmar & Drury, 2000; Liao et al., 2009; Stern, 1962). Thus, impulse buying in general is considered more irrational, in which consumers lose any sense of control (Stern, 1962). Marketers attempt to reduce the price, and time required to reach the store, and lower mental and psychical efforts concerned with the purchase, to allow a greater chance for impulse purchases to happen (Stern, 1962). Purchases will be leaning more towards thoughtful considerations when the buying process mandates higher expenditure in terms of money, time, and mental efforts (Stern, 1962b). Attitudes towards impulsive behaviour are based on cognition (beliefs about costs and benefits) and negative/positive emotions like fear/excitement (Verplanken & Herabadi, 2001). FoMO appeals are affirmed to exacerbate by sharing images through social media platforms, and accordingly augment customers' impulsive behaviour, particularly when cognitions and emotions are simultaneously positive (Xiang et al., 2016). Previous studies revealed that impulse buying by consumers with high FoMO was directed more towards consumption of luxury products than necessities (Dittmar & Drury, 2000; Kang & Ma, 2020), to satisfy the need of belonging with peers and enhancement of one's self-image (Dittmar & Drury, 2000).

Conspicuousness is considered a consumption phenomenon that defines Fomsumers as they enjoy making luxurious purchases (Kang et al., 2020), specifically, culturally symbolic brands (Kang, Son, et al., 2019), to show off and bombard people with information (Abel et al., 2016; Argan et al., 2018; Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018; Dhir et al., 2018; John et al., 2018; Long et al., 2019; Okazaki et al., 2019). Findings show that emotions outweigh cognition while consuming luxury brands (Jhamb et

al., 2020). This could explain why FoMO, considered an emotion, plays an important role in luxury consumption. To fulfil the material need, one would not miss out on the opportunity to be the first to own the latest product (Lim, 2016). This is because luxury brands indicate wealth and status as they are perceived to have higher quality and price than the general brands (Kang et al., 2020). The literature on FoMO-based consumption and its impact, particularly on conspicuous and luxury consumption, is still emerging and predominately focuses on experience sharing (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018). Lately, conspicuous consumption got admired by, and spread among Fomsumers, developing into conspicuous communities through social media (Argan et al., 2018). This type of consumption behaviour can be more prevalent in certain societies. For example, in a collective culture, consumers are noticed to buy luxurious products just to maintain their desired social identity (Li et al., 2020). FoMO has been found to be positively related to interdependent self-construal (Dogan, 2019), a trait that is prevalent among consumers who live in collectivist cultures (Li et al., 2020; Markus & Kitayama, 2010; Shavitt & Barnes, 2020) and who tend to identify themselves as interconnected and socially rooted within their in-groups (Shavitt & Barnes, 2020).

Studies have shown that FoMO is also linked with conformity consumption (Kang, Cui, et al., 2019), which is also referred to as bandwagon consumption (Kang & Ma, 2020) or collective stockpiling consumption (Kang et al., 2020). Conformity has become a paradigm of social influence in which the buyer's purchases are influenced by certain reference groups (Burnkrant & Cousineau, 1975; Lascu & Zinkhan, 1999; J. K. Park & Feinberg, 2010). Young consumers have a strong need to be admired and accepted, which best explains why they are effectively targeted by advertisers using conformity messages (Lascu & Zinkhan, 1999). Marketers count on peer pressure, which is considered a great influence on the decision-making process, as it convinces consumers to make a purchase to avoid being discriminated against by the rest of society (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018; Kang, Cui, et al., 2019). Ones seeking social acceptance, tend to buy brands and services that are socially approved by their community; they behave in the way they "should" when it comes to their purchasing decisions (Scheinbaum et al., 2020).

In fact, people may alter their purchasing decision because of peer pressure, making one compete with their peers by buying what they buy (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018; Gillani, 2012; Hodkinson, 2019). Consumers who are high in conformity are more likely to imitate purchases made by friends (Boush et al., 1993) and are more prone to follow behaviour of others (van Herpen et al., 2009), out of fear of being left out (Kang, Cui, et al., 2019; Kang, Son, et al., 2019). Consumers fear

missing out on acquiring a product they regard as superior just because it was consumed by others (van Herpen et al., 2009). Bandwagon effect occurs because consumers prefer popular products so they could fit in (van Herpen et al., 2009).

The Internet has intensified the practice of conformity consumption as consumers now are more exposed to online communities that share information, common interests and influence one another (J. K. Park & Feinberg, 2010). Online virtual communities have the possibility to reshape consumers' decision-making and opinions formed about products (J. K. Park & Feinberg, 2010). It has been demonstrated that consumers establish a favourable perception of a certain product when they see others positively evaluating the good (Burnkrant & Cousineau, 1975). In addition to visible products, conformity responses occur as well for luxury products, as a way for consumers to reveal their aspirational reference groups (Lascu & Zinkhan, 1999). Prior studies confirm the idea that aspirational group references motivate buyers to pay more for luxurious goods, supporting the bandwagon effect within luxury conspicuous consumption (Niesiobędzka, 2018). Thus, peer pressure is concluded to be linked with conspicuous consumption (Poku & Abdul-Muhmin, 2017). A reasonable justification would be that consumers who seek social acceptance would buy brands that offer new and unique products, allowing them the opportunity to stand out socially and leave quite an impression (Scheinbaum et al., 2020). Consumers who were triggered by trend appeal were confirmed to be largely involved in conspicuous consumption, attempting to show off their radiating acquisitions (Balakrishnan et al., 2020).

Compulsive consumption is a form of uncontrollable buying behaviour due to the irresistible urge one suddenly feels because of anxiety or distress contended, loss of control over the buying behaviour, and excessive buying, despite the negative post-purchase consequences previously experienced (Dittmar et al., 2007). Compulsive behaviour was reported to be more practiced by youngsters (Dittmar, 2005). It could be looked at as an obsessive repetitive impulse behaviour, triggered by negative emotions, such as fear, anxiety, and pressure, or positive emotions, as happiness, and excitement (Darrat et al., 2016). Compulsive decisions are made to avoid negative emotions, such as the fear of missing out on offers, sales, and discounts presented frequently in the online environment, and thus suggesting that FoMO is strongly associated with compulsive buying behaviour (Aydin et al., 2019; Çelik et al., 2019; Darrat et al., 2016; Okazaki et al., 2019; Suresh & Biswas, 2019). Consumers were also shown to be more willing to make a compulsive purchase, if they find a useful product shared on social media platforms (Dittmar & Drury, 2000; Kang & Ma,

2020). The main reason why consumers compulsively buy is to improve their mood, gain prestige, magnify their identity, and enhance their self-image through endorsement of materialistic values (Dittmar, 2005; Dittmar et al., 2007). Research suggests that materialistic consumers' tendency towards buying compulsively is higher online, often resulting in overspending significantly (Dittmar et al., 2007) on unnecessary items (Darrat et al., 2016). Yet, despite harmful consequences, compulsive buyers would continue to repeat excessive buying (Dittmar, 2005).

When being exposed to tempting FoMO appeals, consumers tend to buy what they desire first, then start evaluating the purchase later (Rook & Fisher, 1995). FoMO appeals, triggering impulsive, compulsive, and conformity purchases, would result in affective and cognitive post-decision responses that can cause positive or negative emotions and thoughts after purchases are made (Hodkinson, 2019). In general, negative emotions and cognitions seem to exacerbate when responding to FoMO appeals, including the feelings and thoughts Fomsumers encounter of being socially excluded, worse-off than others, psychological pain, and lower well-being (Neumann, 2020). Hence, Fomsumers might hold negative overall attitude towards brands and advertisements (Neumann, 2020).

In general, FoMO appeals differ from the rest of marketing appeals in the sense that they create panic when resources are perceived as limited, prompting consumers to address their internal hesitancy and make the purchase, as they find products more valuable (Gabler et al., 2017; Gabler & Reynolds, 2013; Hodkinson, 2019). In the FoMO context, if the decider does not take immediate action, the few options will be eliminated with the passage of time (Hodkinson, 2019). Accordingly, FoMO has been used by companies as a marketing tool used in online as well as offline platforms to promote impulsive behaviour by triggering the purchasing intention (Aydin et al., 2019; Bright & Logan, 2018; Çelik et al., 2019; Suresh & Biswas, 2019; Kang, Cui, et al., 2019; Kang & Ma, 2020; Kang, Son, et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020). Thus, the study of FoMO is bringing a new perspective to marketing strategies that aim to influence consumer decisions (Argan et al., 2018; Hodkinson, 2019; Kang, Son, et al., 2019) due to its ability to trigger specific purchasing behaviours.

2.5. Fomsumer's Post-Purchase Responses

FoMO-laden appeals have been presented to generate demand, sales, and profits for companies in different product domains in the short-run (Hodkinson, 2019; Xu & Huang, 2014). Despite the organization's short-term profitability generated from consumer impulsiveness and addiction, the unplanned and uncontrollable purchases induce emotional, financial, and behavioural distress that is difficult to sustain, jeopardising profitability in the long-run (Darrat et al., 2016), although the effect that FoMO appeals have on consumers in the long run still remains unclear (Fennis & Stroebe, 2015). This is because each consumer differs in their behaviour and perceived value associated with one's purchase experience (Izquierdo-Yusta et al., 2020).

Consumptions triggered by FoMO were found to generate decision-making errors (Abel et al., 2016b) that are translated into negative post-purchase emotions as regret (Çelik et al., 2019), guilt, and disappointment (Hodkinson, 2019), negative post-purchase cognitions such as financial distress (Suresh & Biswas, 2019) and doubting credibility of judgements (Hodkinson, 2019), and negative post-purchase behaviours as lower repurchase intention and less willingness to refer such purchases in the future (Hayran et al., 2016). The negative behavioural consequences that were associated with FoMO, were found to hold a strong potential in damaging the long-term relationship between the customers and the brand, as it was reported that by lowering repurchase intention, loyalty of Fomsumers would be threatened (Hayran et al., 2020).

Thus, Fomsumers' post-purchase responses towards buying-decisions triggered by FoMO appeals could be split into cognitive, emotional, and behavioural (Argan et al., 2018; Baker et al., 2016; Błachnio & Przepiórka, 2018; Milyavskaya et al., 2018).

2.5.1. *Cognitive Responses*

The negative side of customer responses has gained prominence in research, as FoMO appeals used by marketers and advertisers were shown to be associated with unhealthy, addictive behaviour (Riordan et al., 2018; Stead & Bibby, 2017), resulting in negative post-purchase cognitions reported as bad mood, lower overall life satisfaction, and well-being (Baker et al., 2016; Barry et al.,

2017; Błachnio & Przepiórka, 2018; Hodkinson, 2019; Przybylski et al., 2013; Stead & Bibby, 2017), sorrow and mental distress (Akbar et al., 2020), doubting credibility of judgement (Hodkinson, 2019), and fatigue (Bright & Logan, 2018; Milyavskaya et al., 2018). The latter has been shown to be exacerbated by decision-making (Vohs et al., 2008). Fomsumers have also reported financial distress as a negative cognitive response for they disregard the price, quality, and quantity when buying, which might make them relapse if they end up in a financial crisis (Suresh & Biswas, 2019).

Accordingly, Fomsumers' act of consumption prompted by FoMO appeals generates negative cognitive responses as dissatisfaction, resulting from unmet high prior expectations set towards the purchase (Abel et al., 2016; Argan et al., 2018; Çelik et al., 2019; Hodkinson, 2019; Rook, 1987). Fomsumers start to consider all the rejected alternatives and assume their current state would have been better if they acted differently (Rajagopal et al., 2019). Some constantly believe that the choices they did not make were better than the ones they made (Metz, 2019). This explains why Fomsumers' satisfaction is no longer related to the property, services, or assets they own (Argan et al., 2018) as their main common characteristic revolves around the perception that what is missed is more valuable than what is done (Mcdermott, 2017). Cognitive dissonance theory, proposed by Festinger (1957), is designed to explain negative cognitions encountered post-buying, hypothesizing that when individuals make a purchasing choice, they would have to cope with the negative thoughts concerning the tempting elements accompanying the rejected alternatives. Cognitive dissonance could also occur when individuals act in a manner that contradicts original beliefs and attitudes (Oshikawa, 1969), which clarifies the negative cognitions experienced post impulse decisions prompted by FoMO appeals. Indeed, FoMO was noted to be associated with lower satisfaction (Barry & Wong, 2020), which is argued to later increase post-purchase negative emotions (Inman et al., 1997).

2.5.2. *Emotional Responses*

Scholars argue that unintended purchases triggered by FoMO could generate emotional responses (Mukhopadhyay & Johar, 2007) that could either be positive emotions, like happiness, enjoyment (Argan et al., 2018), pleasure and excitement (Kang, Son, et al., 2019; Verplanken & Herabadi, 2001), or, negative emotions like regret, disappointment, guilt and anxiety (Abel et al., 2016; Argan et al., 2018; Barry et al., 2017; Çelik et al., 2019; Hodkinson, 2019; Milyavskaya et al., 2018; Rook, 1987; Wang et al., 2018). Negative post-purchase emotions felt could be a result of

Fomsumers' high social media intensity, i.e., their constant presence on social media platforms checking what others consume, and engaging in social comparison (Neumann, 2020). Thus, Social Comparison theory would fit well with explaining negative emotions felt post-buying decisions prompted by FoMO, suggesting that people decide their own personal worth based on how they compare to others (Festinger, 1954). As Fomsumers tend to appreciate less their acquired products and experiences, they may then turn into unhappy consumers (Abel et al., 2016; Milyavskaya et al., 2018; Przybylski et al., 2013; Riordan et al., 2018; Tomczyk & Selmanagic-Lizde, 2018).

Impulse purchases triggered by FoMO may result in negative post-purchase emotions in the long-run (Aydin et al., 2019; Çelik et al., 2019; Inman et al., 1997). Fomsumers feel negative post-purchase emotions when they realize that FoMO motivated them to make decisions based on timing more than their personal desires (Çelik et al., 2019; Conlin et al., 2016; Hodkinson, 2019; Milyavskaya et al., 2018). When being exposed to FoMO appeals, consumers are encouraged to take the offer rather than reject it, which might ultimately create a sense of regret, disappointment, or guilt towards the decision made (Hodkinson, 2019), due to misspending or breaking financial limits on unnecessary and unplanned items (Dittmar & Drury, 2000; Inman et al., 1997; Mukhopadhyay & Johar, 2007; Rook, 1987; Saleh, 2012; Tsiros & Mittal, 2000).

Negative post-purchase emotions felt, as regret, could be explained by Regret Theory (Bell, 1982), according to which individuals are exposed to negative consequences of decision-making gone through under uncertainty. Regret is the emotion one experiences when realizing or imagining that the current situation would have been better, if only one decided differently (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2007). Regret is uniquely tied to decision-making and behaviour: no decisions, no regret (Milyavskaya et al., 2018; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2007). Feedback is a central issue in Regret Theory (Zeelenberg, 1999). Research has shown that feedback about the forgone alternatives indeed influences post-decision negative emotions towards decision outcomes (Boles & Messick, 1995; Inman et al., 1997; Ritov & Baron, 1995; Summerville, 2011; Zeelenberg, 1999). Moreover, scholars argue that FoMO triggers might generate negative post-purchase behavioural responses in the long run, in the form of lower repurchase intention, referral, and loyalty (Balakrishnan et al., 2020).

2.5.3. *Behavioural Responses*

Negative behavioural responses may arise post buying-decisions triggered by FoMO appeals, which translates into lower profits for companies and service operators (Dhir et al., 2018). Into the bargain, FoMO appeals were shown to have negative long-term consequences on the relationship between the brand and consumers (Fahlman et al., 2018). FoMO has been suggested to discourage consumers from making repeated purchases in the future (Hayran et al., 2016; Kang, Son, et al., 2019), negatively impacts loyalty (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2007), and escalates brand switching intentions (Y.J. Jang et al., 2013; Shi et al., 2005). Negative post-purchase behavioural responses are consequent on negative post-purchase cognitions and emotions encountered (Dhir et al., 2018).

Dissatisfaction - a significant indicator for negative post-purchase cognitions experienced - was found to result in multiple negative post-purchase behaviours (Hodkinson, 2019). Dissatisfied consumers with purchases encouraged by FoMO appeals tend to withdraw from service use (Bright & Logan, 2018; Burnell et al., 2019; Fahlman et al., 2018), and shift to alternative brands (Ciavoling & Dahlgaard, 2007; Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2007), which eventually threatens the probability of consumers repeating purchases from the same seller in the future (Tsiros & Mittal, 2000). Likewise, negative emotions felt, as regret, disappointment, and guilt, post impulse purchases triggered by FoMO, were found to curtail future impulse purchases (Scheinbaum et al., 2020; Spiteri Cornish, 2020). Fomsumers who felt negative post-purchase emotions were reported to leave off visiting the online sites again (Rajagopal et al., 2019), and were less willing to repeat similar purchases later (Hayran et al., 2016).

Given that FoMO decreases valuation of and intention to repeat a purchase, it has been reported to pose a threat to loyalty (Hayran et al., 2020). Loyalty is key to companies, because loyal customers are easier to manage and less expensive compared to new consumers (Brakus et al., 2009). Loyalty is considered key variable in consumers' post-purchase process (Izquierdo-Yusta et al., 2020), which results in repeat purchases (Ciavoling & Dahlgaard, 2007) and intention to recommend products or services to others (Ciavoling & Dahlgaard, 2007), all of which are considered of great importance to any business's success (Jalonen & Jussila, 2016). When loyalty gets negatively affected by FoMO appeals, consumers would ultimately fall prey to competitors (Saleh, 2012).

Both negative post-purchase cognitions and emotions encountered were found to negatively impact referral as well (Tsiros & Mittal, 2000). Fomsumers were less keen to recommend dissatisfying

purchases to their peers (Hayran et al., 2016). Disappointed consumers were verified to spread negative word-of-mouth, to let out the negative emotions they felt (Arruda Filho & Barcelos, 2020; Y.J. Jang et al., 2013; Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011). One way to reduce anxiety encountered when being dissatisfied is to practice power over the enterprise and share negative feedback about the product experienced on social media platforms (Kumar & Purbey, 2018). Negative opinions formulated regarding a certain product would be shared with existing and potential consumers (Rajagopal et al., 2019) commonly by Millennials on online platforms (Clark, 2013). This is because Millennials are known to be impatient, compared to their predecessors (Bolton et al., 2013). In the online world, the damage is more profound due to the power of social media platforms in reaching out to wide number of consumers (Rajagopal et al., 2019), besides the ability to propagate negative feedback faster on social media platforms, compared to traditional word-of-mouth (Kumar & Purbey, 2018).

Negative online word-of-mouth reduces brand's value, image, and sales, resulting in company's detriment (Kumar & Purbey, 2018). Furthermore, attitudes and opinions formed are more influenced by negative word-of-mouth than positive word-of-mouth (Kumar & Purbey, 2018). In other words, negative online reviews are found to be more persuasive, having stronger impact on consumers' attitudes towards a brand (Lee & Cranage, 2012). In general, word-of-mouth has proven to be more effective than advertising in both short and long-run (Trusov et al., 2009). Scholars found that word-of-mouth had a greater impact on customer acquisition and brand choice compared to advertisement (Trusov et al., 2009). Thus, positive word-of-mouth is critical for business' success, and companies must exert every effort to avoid having negative reviews established.

3. Research propositions and conceptual framework

Prior literature and theories clarify gaps that need further exploration. FoMO was recently integrated with purchase-decision, which encouraged marketers and advertisers to start using it as a marketing appeal to prompt the decision-making process of consumers (Abel et al., 2016; Argan et al., 2018; Aydin et al., 2019; Çelik et al., 2019; Hodkinson, 2019; Kang, Cui, et al., 2019; Kang, Son, et al., 2019; Kang & Ma, 2020; Mcdermott, 2017; Suresh & Biswas, 2019). Yet very little is known regarding FoMO and its effect on consumption and consumer behaviour, specifically, post-purchase responses (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018; Baker et al., 2016; Hodkinson, 2019; Wegmann et al., 2017).

It has been argued that, even though FoMO appeals may result in short-term gains for companies in the form of profit (Mcdermott, 2017), it is assumed to have a negative effect on Fomsumers' post-purchase cognitions, emotions, and behaviours in the long run (Baker et al., 2016; Barry et al., 2017; Błachnio & Przepiórka, 2018; Hodkinson, 2019; Mcdermott, 2017; Milyavskaya et al., 2018; Przybylski et al., 2013; Stead & Bibby, 2017). These negative responses to FoMO-induced appeals might negatively affect the company's sales in the near future as repeated purchases are considered a touchstone for long-term sales potential (Frevert, 1967). Thus, it is key to keep consumers away from the negative effects of FoMO (Argan et al., 2018) as the main aim behind any marketing exchange is to satisfy consumers in return for profit (Laczniak & Murphy, 2006), generate sales, repeated purchases and enhance relationships with consumers (Suresh & Biswas, 2019).

Consumers would not want to miss great opportunities, and accordingly engage in irrational buying-decisions when being exposed to FoMO appeals (Hodkinson, 2019). Fomsumers were shown to fear missing out on chances of saving money, when being exposed to offers and sales discount (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018; Aydinli et al., 2014; Bright & Logan, 2018; Xu & Huang, 2014). Fomsumers were also triggered by products that exhibit uniqueness implied through limited supply and limited time offers (Hodkinson, 2019; John et al., 2018). To add, peer pressure was found to encourage Fomsumers to make immediate purchases, out of fear of being socially excluded if they do not consume trendy goods (Przybylski et al., 2013; Tomczyk & Selmanagic-Lizde, 2018; Yim et al., 2020). FoMO appeals were found to elicit consumers into making unplanned purchases (Rajagopal et al., 2019), comprised of impulse purchases (Rook, 1987; Scheinbaum et al., 2020), compulsive buying

(Darrat et al., 2016), and conformity consumption (Kang, Cui, et al., 2019). Consequently, the study suggests the following research proposition:

RP1. Marketing's appeals such as scarcity, trend, and promotion, influence consumers to be more prone to unplanned buying behaviour as impulse, compulsive, and conformity purchases.

Literature argues that, once the product is purchased, consumers start to re-think and evaluate their purchasing decisions (Rook & Fisher, 1995). Prior literature suggests that impulsive and compulsive decisions prompted by FoMO led to negative post-purchase cognitive responses in the form of dissatisfaction (Baker et al., 2016; Hodkinson, 2019). One reason could be the irrationality accompanying decisions when making unplanned purchases (Argan et al., 2018), as consumers become stimulated by timing of opportunities more than personal desire (Conlin et al., 2016). Post impulse purchase dissatisfaction has been reported in many forms including, doubting credibility of judgement (Hodkinson, 2019), sorrow and mental distress (Akbar et al., 2020), financial distress (Suresh & Biswas, 2019), or negative disconfirmation (Hodkinson, 2019). Negative disconfirmation results from unmet expectations (Oliver, 1980). It is in Fomsumers' nature to perceive what is missed as more valuable (Argan et al., 2018), which could provide an explanation behind negative post-purchase cognitions towards FoMO appeals. Thus, the study proposes the following research proposition:

RP2. FoMO-induced consumption generates negative post-purchase cognitions like distress, doubting credibility of judgement, and dissatisfaction.

Dissatisfaction was suggested to later increase post-purchase negative emotions (Inman et al., 1997). As posited in existing literature, unintended purchases triggered by FoMO could generate negative emotional responses (Hodkinson, 2019). Fomsumers feel negative emotions post-consumption when they realize that their purchases were encouraged by externally-initiated appeals rather than their own motivation (Çelik et al., 2019; Conlin et al., 2016; Hodkinson, 2019; Milyavskaya et al., 2018). Negative post-purchase emotions result from unplanned purchases that turned out to be unnecessary, and because of misspending or breaking financial limits (Dittmar & Drury, 2000; Inman et al., 1997; Mukhopadhyay & Johar, 2007; Rook, 1987; Saleh, 2012; Tsiros & Mittal, 2000). Consumers then

become unhappy and encounter negative emotions like regret, disappointment, and guilt (Abel et al., 2016; Argan et al., 2018; Barry et al., 2017; Çelik et al., 2019; Hodkinson, 2019; Milyavskaya et al., 2018; Rook, 1987; Wang et al., 2018). Due to FoMO, consumers are highly engaged on social media networks (Conlin et al., 2016). The negative post-purchase emotions felt might be explained by Fomsumers' high social media intensity, where it is easy to compare one's purchases with others (Neumann, 2020) and, accordingly, the possessions consumers have made tend to be appreciated less (Milyavskaya et al., 2018; Riordan et al., 2018). Hence, the study makes the following proposition:

RP3. FoMO-induced consumption generates negative post-purchase emotions like regret, disappointment, and guilt.

Impulse buying behaviour can generate negative post buying cognitions as dissatisfaction (Cook & Yurchisin, 2017). Negative post-purchase cognitions were argued to lead to negative post-purchase behavioural outcomes (Y.J. Jang et al., 2013). Consumer dissatisfaction resulting from being exposed to FoMO triggers, was suggested to discourage consumers from making repeated purchases (Butkouskaya et al., 2021; Hayran et al., 2016; Kang, Son, et al., 2019), lowering their intention to refer products to others (Dhir et al., 2018). Fomsumers are less keen to recommend dissatisfying purchases to their peers (Hayran et al., 2016). Also, dissatisfaction with unplanned purchases caused brand switching resulting from negative brand/consumer relationship (Balakrishnan et al., 2020; Fahlman et al., 2018). Accordingly, the study puts forward the next proposition:

RP4. Negative post-purchase cognitions like dissatisfaction and doubting the credibility of judgement cause negative behavioural responses, such as lower re-purchase intentions and negative word-of-mouth.

When engaging in unplanned buying-decisions, impulsive buyers report regret as a negative post-purchase emotion (Cook & Yurchisin, 2017). Negative emotions have prevailed after making unplanned purchases due to being exposed to FoMO appeals and were suggested to cause negative behavioural responses (Hodkinson, 2019). Regret, disappointment, and guilt were argued to harm companies by decreasing loyalty and curtailing future impulse purchases (Jalonen & Jussila, 2016; Scheinbaum et al., 2020; Spiteri Cornish, 2020). Fomsumers reported lower intentions to repeat similar purchases triggered by FoMO appeals (Hayran et al., 2016), as well as reducing the intent to

recommend and refer purchases to others (Tsiros & Mittal, 2000). Consumers resolved their disappointment by speaking negatively about the brand (Arruda Filho & Barcelos, 2020). Thus, the study implies the following research proposition:

RP5. Negative post-purchase emotions like regret and disappointment cause negative behavioural responses, such as lower re-purchase intentions and negative word-of-mouth.

Based on the literature, a conceptual model of Fomsumers' purchasing process (Figure 2) was drawn. The model is composed of Fomsumers' marketing triggers, purchasing behaviour, and post-purchasing responses. Three responses supported within literature are developed: *affective, cognitive, and behavioural responses.*

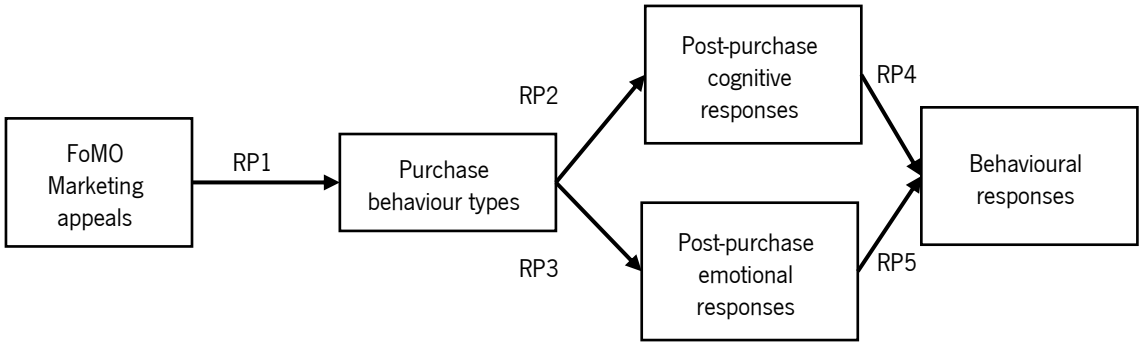


Figure 2. Conceptual Model

The following chapter describes the qualitative research design, designed according to the research problem and the researcher's philosophical beliefs, with the aim of deepening knowledge about FoMO and its effects on Fomsumers' buying behaviour and, consequently, finding support for the research propositions

4. Methodology

Literature is scarce regarding the effect of FoMO marketing appeals, not only on the decision process and different purchase decision types, but also on the post-purchase cognitions, emotions, and behaviours experienced (Hayran et al., 2016; Hodkinson, 2019). Thus, this study intends to further the knowledge of the Fomsumer's buying-decision process, focusing on the Fomsumer's responses to FoMO appeals. Specifically, the purpose of the study is to investigate the Fomsumer's post-purchase cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses when exposed to FoMO appeals.

It has been argued that qualitative data collection helps in understanding adequately consumer behaviour (Rajagopal et al., 2019). Profound insights into consumers' thoughts and feelings are provided through adopting qualitative methods (Patton, 2002). Our study adopts a qualitative research approach designed to conduct an in-depth exploration of the relationship between FoMO appeals and Fomsumer's post-purchase responses. Moreover, Critical Incident Technique (CIT) has been found to be appropriate in studies that are exploratory in nature and was therefore used as a tool to collect qualitative data (Grace, 2007). CIT deeply captures the thoughts and feelings on a particular incident experienced by participants themselves (Daymon & Holloway, 2011). Accordingly, the study relied on CIT to collect data from 57 participants through semi-structured interviews. Interviews are the most regular method of data collection in qualitative research (Cassell & Symon, 2004). It has been argued that data generated from semi-structured interviews are mostly analyzed using qualitative methods (Harris & Brown, 2010).

This chapter will start by presenting the research question and objectives followed by describing the research strategies and methodological options of the study, aligned with the ontological and epistemological views of the researcher. Then detailed explanation will be provided regarding the research design and the methods and procedures used to collect data, followed by an elaboration on the sampling technique, and the characteristics of the sample. After, data analysis procedures will be discussed, ending with ethical considerations.

4.1. Research Problem, Questions, and Objectives

The investigation aims to obtain an in-depth understanding of the relationship between FoMO appeals and post-purchase responses comprising of cognitions, emotions, and behaviours, finding answers to the following research question (Table 2): *What are Fomsumers' post-purchase cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses to purchase decisions driven by FoMO appeals? In particular, this study aims to achieve the following research objectives:*

1) To identify the different marketing appeals inducing FoMO in Fomsumers.

2) To identify the types of purchases for which FoMO is more relevant.

3) To explore different purchase-decisions and consumption behaviours associated with FoMO marketing appeals.

4) To investigate the post-decision cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses resulting from purchase decision types stimulated by FoMO appeals.

Table 2: Summary of research objectives and their respective research propositions

Research objectives	Research propositions
1. To identify the different marketing appeals inducing FoMO in Fomsumers.	RP1. Marketing's appeals such as scarcity, trend, and promotion, influence consumers to be more prone to unplanned buying behaviour as impulse, compulsive, and conformity purchases.
2. To identify the types of purchases for which FoMO is more relevant.	
3. To explore different purchase-decisions and consumption behaviours associated with FoMO marketing appeals.	RP2. FoMO-induced consumption generates negative post-purchase cognitions like distress, doubting credibility of judgement and dissatisfaction. RP3. FoMO-induced consumption generates negative post-purchase emotions like regret, disappointment, and guilt.
4. To investigate the post-decision cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses resulting from purchase decision types stimulated by FoMO appeals.	RP4. Negative post-purchase cognition like dissatisfaction and doubting the credibility of judgement cause negative behavioural responses, such as lower re-purchase intentions and negative word-of-mouth. RP5. Negative post-purchase emotions like regret and disappointment cause negative behavioural responses, such as lower re-purchase intentions and negative word-of-mouth.

4.2. Research Philosophy

The research design process begins with a discussion of the researcher's philosophical views, paradigms, and set of beliefs that shape the research design and methods of the qualitative study (Creswell, 2007). The exploratory nature of the research problem determined the qualitative research methodology adopted to explore Fomsumers' post-purchase responses when being exposed to FoMO appeals, specifically the cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses. Besides, the methodological choices were based on the level of understanding developed from the literature, as well as the researcher's philosophical beliefs. All researchers consciously or unconsciously make philosophical assumptions about the nature of reality and the nature of the human being in the world (ontology), the nature of knowledge and how the researcher makes sense of the world (epistemology), the personal values guiding the study (axiology), and the nature of the methods used to gain understanding about the word (methodology) (Creswell, 2007; Pathirage et al., 2008).

In the social sciences domain, there are multiple research paradigms, each representing the nature of the researcher's worldview (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Authors continued to explain that paradigms are notions held towards the essence of conducting research, evolved from the ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). The main paradigms adopted in social sciences are positivism, post-positivism, critical theory, and interpretivism (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Authors have argued that interpretivism is deemed more proper when studying fields related to marketing communication and consumer behaviour (Daymon & Holloway, 2011; Saunders et al., 2007). Accordingly, interpretivism, often referred to as constructivism, is the paradigm adopted for this study.

Interpretivist ontology is classified as relativist, where researchers believe that the comprehension of multiple social realities is complex and relative from one person to another, and is built overtime through communicating with participants, rather than having a generalised truth given (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Consequently, the interpretation of knowledge differs according to the cultural, sociological, political, economic, and gender factors of the researchers (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

The interpretivist's epistemological stance is that knowledge concerning social reality is withdrawn from the point of view of those who are in it (Daymon & Holloway, 2011; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). While positivists are interested in testing hypotheses, interpretivists are keen to construct, and not find, knowledge by comprehending the subjective reality of participants to clarify their motives, actions, and intentions in a meaningful way through qualitative methodologies (Daymon & Holloway, 2011; Saunders et al., 2007; Schwandt, 2000). Interpretivists deal with impressions rather than facts (Saunders et al., 2007), to better understand human action (Schwandt, 2000). Researchers develop models and concepts, and these constructions are modified according to the new experiences encountered (Schwandt, 2000). Therefore, this study embraces a subjectivist perspective as the researcher acknowledges the impossibility of being separate from the research subject (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Pathirage et al., 2008).

Subjective meanings evolved from the incidents shared by participants, as researcher's interpretation of data is affected by her own cultural, educational, and social background (Creswell, 2007). Researchers are involved in the participant's world to interpret what they are doing, and find meaning behind their actions (Schwandt, 2000). Thus, the study relied more on open-ended questions to better generate insights into the phenomenon being explored, and then the complexity of views was sought to form categories (Creswell, 2007). The researcher adopted a thematic stance by comprehending the participant's world and points of view, as individuals value different situations differently (Saunders et al., 2007).

Axiology is the study of personal values in terms of the researcher's moral and ethical stance, that guide how their studies should be conducted to answer their social inquiries (Saunders et al., 2007). Hence, the choice of the paradigm and the data collection methods are reflections of the researcher's own personal values. The researcher valued personal interaction with respondents over anonymous views stated through questionnaires, and consequently data was collected through one-to-one interviews (Saunders et al., 2007). To add, the researcher's axiology throughout all stages of the research process was essential in determining the credibility and trustworthiness of the findings (Saunders et al., 2007).

The link between data collection and data analysis is discussed in terms of induction, deduction, and abduction (Kennedy & Thornberg, 2018). The deductive approach means the theory precedes findings, while the inductive approach is used when theory follows data (Pathirage et al., 2008). Deduction permits the researcher to examine conclusions at different phases of the research

process, while induction supports the establishment of codes, themes, categories, and theoretical constructs to interpret data and provide meaningful relationships (Kennedy & Thornberg, 2018). Although researchers formally present their study as inductive or deductive (Orton, 1997), they often integrate both approaches by following an abductive reasoning (Orton, 1997). Abductive reasoning is defined as research approach that enables "a short and most promising (though not necessarily successful) path through the exponentially explosive search space of possible explanatory reasons" (Schurz, 2008, p. 204). Thus, abduction approach allows the researcher to add new insights to the existing prior knowledge or modify existing knowledge in novel ways by combining methods of exploration and explanation of new data (Thornberg, 2012). Abduction produces credible elaboration of the information that emerges from the data collection and analysis (Kennedy & Thornberg, 2018). It is advisable for researchers to start explaining the iteration between data and theory, instead of holding on to the inductive and deductive rhetoric (Orton, 1997). Previous literature argues that combining deduction and induction in a research study is possible and often beneficial (Saunders et al., 2007). This study commenced with a deductive approach, proposing a conceptual framework that was developed, using preconceived categories established from prior literature (Cassell & Symon, 2004). Then, through the study of real-life incidents, conclusions were induced to extend the conceptual framework, and add value to the existing literature on consumer behaviour and marketing (Pathirage et al., 2008). Table 3 identifies the main research decisions and options based on the researcher's philosophic viewpoints.

Table 3: Methodology

Research Paradigm	Interpretivism
Ontology	Relativism
Epistemology	Subjectivism
Nature of study	Exploratory
Research Design	Qualitative approach
Time horizon	Cross-sectional
Research Approach	Abduction
Research Method	Critical Incident Technique Semi-structured Interviews
Sampling Method	Purposive
Data Analysis method	Content Analysis

The next section provides a full explanation of the research design and the method underlying the research. Next, the data collection and data analysis procedures are discussed.

4.3. Qualitative Research Design and the Critical Incident Technique

The study relied on a qualitative approach to generate first-hand data needed to answer the research question, achieve the research objectives, and augment the knowledge about FoMO and post-purchase Fomsumers' responses. Qualitative approach has become as equally appraised as quantitative approach (Patton, 2002). As recently highlighted in consumer behaviour literature, there is great value in employing qualitative methods (Rajagopal et al., 2019). For one, researchers become highly involved unlike quantitative research, where researchers can be remote from their participants (Daymon & Holloway, 2011). Flexibility is an additional advantage of qualitative methods, where research questions can be changed as data is being collected along the research process (Schreier, 2012). Furthermore, the open and non-directional questions used in qualitative research methods enable participants to speak freely compared to quantitative methods, where participants are only allowed to choose from a limited set of response options (Schreier, 2012). Consequently, qualitative methods "recognize the reflexivity of participants by regarding them as partners in the research process" (Schreier, 2012, p. 23), instead of having them passively respond to the pre-set questions as in quantitative methods (Cassell & Symon, 2004). Moreover, qualitative research has been noted to deal with research questions that explore "the personal meaning of experiences" (Schreier, 2012, p. 21), which is central to this research.

CIT was deemed appropriate to conduct the qualitative study for it asks participants to go back in time, recall critical or highly significant incidents in regard to the phenomenon of interest, and describe them in context, to help the researcher understand better all the elements around that particular incident (Daymon & Holloway, 2011). CIT is defined as "a qualitative interview procedure, which facilitates the investigation of significant occurrences (events, incidents, processes, or issues), identified by the participant, the way they are managed, and the outcomes in terms of perceived effects. The objective is to gain a clear understanding of the incident from the perspective of the individual, taking into account cognitive, affective and behavioural elements" (Chell, 2004, p. 48). CIT method allows participants to speak freely using their own languages and terminologies (Gremler, 2004). The nature of CIT approach allows much of the data developed to conform with the values of the participants (Chell & Pittaway, 1998).

This method has been extensively used in different domains related to marketing and consumer behaviour (Edvardsson & Roos, 2001; Gremler, 2004). In consumer behaviour context, CIT method is used to generate detailed responses from participants on a particular incident they have personally experienced that is relevant to the phenomenon being studied (Gremler, 2004). Participants would share either positive critical incidents that reflect upon their perceived satisfaction, or negative critical incidents that highlight their dissatisfaction (Edvardsson & Roos, 2001; Flanagan, 1954).

CIT has an advantage over literature search, quantitative studies, or in-depth interviews method, in recording authentic details that translate into key themes (Gremler, 2004). When exploring human behaviour, mutual learning is established between the researcher and participants, and the researcher becomes more subjective than objective (Lincoln & Guba, 1986). Subjectivity accompanies CIT qualitative interviews because the researcher cannot be detached from the participants (Cassell & Symon, 2004). An added benefit of CIT when used qualitatively, is enriching the understanding of the cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses of a particular incident on the individual through detailed data provided by respondents (Chell & Pittaway, 1998). Completeness of data that CIT provides, occurs when having incidents covered in full detail, including a "description of what occurred and how the individual felt about a situation, how the individual acted, the psychological prerogatives behind their actions and an indication of how their actions affected the outcome of the incident" (Chell & Pittaway, 1998, p. 26).

Despite the considerable benefits of using CIT, the method has been criticized in terms of credibility and validity due to its retrospective nature. In this sense, some incidents reported by respondents may be misunderstood or misinterpreted, depending on their memory (Chell & Pittaway, 1998; Edvardsson, 1992; Edvardsson & Roos, 2001). Also, respondents may be unwilling to dedicate time and effort to reflection and detailed descriptions of the critical incidents, resulting in a low response rate (Edvardsson & Roos, 2001). Another limitation of using CIT is the possibility of having a history of customer interaction with the firm affecting the behavioural consequences of the critical incident, rather than the critical incident itself (Gremler, 2004). In the present study, to avoid ambiguities, the interview questions were designed to be asked in solid sequence, where participants were guided to provide valuable information about their buying-decisions, thus allowing the researcher to verify the causes of satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Chell & Pittaway, 1998).

4.4. Data Collection Procedures

The study counted on CIT in the form of semi-structured in-depth interviews to obtain rich information regarding individuals' perceptions of contexts where FoMO is intensified, FoMO triggers, buying-decision types, and their post-purchase responses to FoMO appeals. The main aim behind conducting in-depth interviews is to study the topic from the perspective of the participants, and to comprehend how and why they reach their perspectives (Cassell & Symon, 2004). The interviews were semi-structured, as the actual interview guide is largely unstructured, and thus mandated the researcher to know which parts would require further probing to adapt the questioning process when interviewing participants (Chell & Pittaway, 1998, p. 25). Semi-structured interviews are best used to actively seek strong relationship between the participant and researcher to gain in-depth insight in the phenomenon being studied, unlike structured interviews that aim to obtain accurate information disregarding any relationship factors (Cassell & Symon, 2004).

The interviews were conducted by phone to further investigate the Fomsumer's post-purchase cognitive, behavioural, and emotional consequences when being exposed to FoMO appeals. Although telephone interviews hinder the researcher from watching the participant's body language, it is considered convenient to use as a source of information, when it is not possible to reach the participants directly (Creswell, 2007). Other added benefits of using telephone interviews are reducing data collection costs and facilitating geographical reach of participants (Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004). Another advantage that phone interviews offer is saving time in reaching participants (Miller, 1995). Moreover, phone interviews allow researchers to easily take notes without distracting participants nor restraining the flow of conversation (Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004). Hence, using telephone interviews is considered valid and productive qualitative research tool (Miller, 1995; Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004).

Interviewees were asked to reflect on an incident they were exposed to that left them significantly satisfied or dissatisfied due to unplanned purchases caused by FoMO. The interviewer designed warm-up questions to begin with, to make sure that participants were at ease, reducing potential embarrassment and distress (Cassell & Symon, 2004). An example of a warm-up question is "What are the items you like to spend money on most? and why?". The interview guide (Appendix 1) included a list of important topics that needed to be explored and covered in the interview process, and probing questions to evoke detailed and descriptive responses about the critical incidents

experienced by participants (Cassell & Symon, 2004). The probing questions were applied to specific areas that needed further development, after having solid background of the theoretical issues involved (Chell & Pittaway, 1998). Scholars argue that it is crucial not to end the interview on a difficult and tricky topic (Cassell & Symon, 2004). Hence, the interview ended by asking participants about their social media habits. Interviews were audio-recorded, lasting around 16 minutes on average. The study is cross-sectional (Saunders et al., 2007), and data was gathered during 2021-2022 over an eleven-month period.

Data were collected from 57 participants generating 87 critical incidents. Scholars argue that a small number of subjects is considered "acceptable as long as saturation occurs and no new important data is emerging" (Daymon & Holloway, 2011, p. 163). The number of critical incidents collected was considered sufficient, since after the 23rd interview (Incident #31) no additional codes were obtained, as can be seen in figure 3, where the new codes generated by each additional interview are represented. A total of 42 interview-generated codes were applied in the analysis (Figure 3).

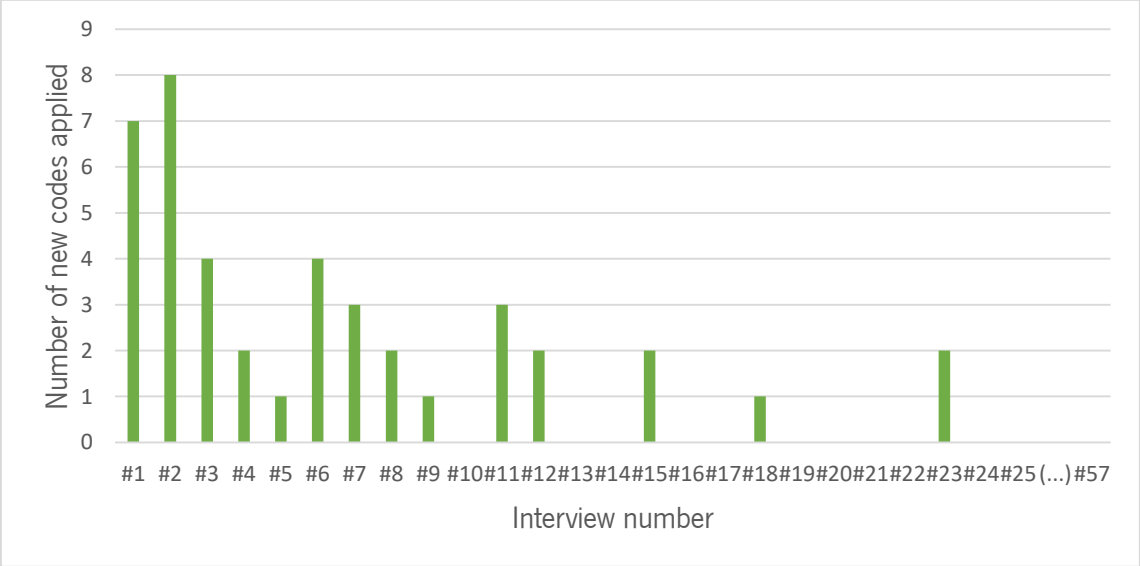


Figure 3. Code Saturation

The domain is considered thoroughly covered, when new codes stop emerging from data (Flanagan, 1954). However, the interviewer collected data from 56 additional critical incidents (Table 4) to gain richer insights into the different perspectives of Fomsumers and to strengthen the confidence in the meanings extracted from the data. All critical incidents reported by each interviewee

were considered in the content analysis. Table 4 details the number of incidents reported by each interviewee and the number of codes applied when analysing each interview, while also identifying which of these were new, adding to the final codebook and allowing to identify the point of code saturation.

Table 4: New codes applied per interview.

Interviewee Number	Incidents Per Interviewee	Total codes applied by interview	New Codes applied by interview	Cumulative
#1	1	7	7	7
#2	2	15	8	15
#3	1	9	4	19
#4	1	9	2	21
#5	1	8	1	22
#6	2	16	4	26
#7	1	9	3	29
#8	2	14	2	31
#9	1	9	1	32
#10	1	8	0	32
#11	2	16	3	35
#12	2	17	2	37
#13	1	8	0	37
#14	1	7	0	37
#15	1	10	2	39
#16	1	8	0	39
#17	1	8	0	39
#18	1	8	1	40
#19	2	19	0	40
#20	1	9	0	40
#21	2	18	0	40
#22	1	8	0	40
#23	2	17	2	42
#24	2	16	0	42
#25	2	18	0	42
#26	1	10	2	42
#27	2	16	0	42
#28	3	25	0	42
#29	2	16	0	42
#30	1	8	0	42
#31	1	9	0	42
#32	2	15	0	42
#33	2	15	0	42
#34	3	26	0	42
#35	2	16	0	42
#36	1	9	0	42
#37	2	16	0	42
#38	1	8	0	42
#39	2	17	0	42
#40	2	16	0	42
#41	3	25	0	42

Interviewee Number	Incidents Per Interviewee	Total codes applied by interview	New Codes applied by interview	Cumulative
#42	1	8	0	42
#43	2	16	0	42
#44	3	28	0	42
#45	1	8	0	42
#46	2	16	0	42
#47	2	17	0	42
#48	1	10	0	42
#49	2	18	0	42
#50	1	9	0	42
#51	1	8	0	42
#52	1	8	0	42
#53	1	9	0	42
#54	1	8	0	42
#55	1	9	0	42
#56	1	8	0	42
#57	1	8	0	42

Next, the sample size and characteristics of the participants are discussed, as well as the sampling technique and strategy.

4.5. Population and Sampling

A total of 87 critical incidents were reported from 57 participants. Gremler (2004) found that nine participants were the least sample size that is considered adequate after systematically examining 115 CIT studies. (Flanagan, 1954), on the other hand, notes that the sample size is determined by the number of critical incidents and not the number of participants. The author continues to debate that there is no rule for the number of incidents collected that indicates sufficiency (Flanagan, 1954). However, small samples are often used in qualitative studies, since researchers are more interested in deep exploration of the phenomenon to contribute with rich insightful descriptions (Daymon & Holloway, 2011).

The research sample was selected from Egyptian participants who could adequately provide insight into the FoMO post-purchase response mechanism (Andrade, 2021; Patton, 2002). Al-Menayes (2016) examined the psychometric properties of the Arabic version of the FoMO scale, concluding that the Arabic FoMO scale is internally consistent and is shown to be high in concurrent validity. Al-Menayes (2016) calls future researchers to further study FoMO on Arabic-speaking sample to identify the strengths and weaknesses of FoMO. Besides, FoMO has been shown to be positively

related to interdependent self-construal (Dogan, 2019); a trait that is prevalent among people who live in collectivist cultures (Li et al., 2020; Markus & Kitayama, 2010; Shavitt & Barnes, 2020), of which the Arab countries in general and Egypt, in particular, are examples (Darwish & Huber, 2003). The collectivist nature of Arab culture means that the individuals' identity is shaped by the society they live in, their private life is exposed, and they rely emotionally on their organizations (Buda & Elsayed-Elkhouly, 1998). Additionally, Egypt has witnessed a drastic rise in the number of internet users over the previous years (Figure 4) (World Bank, 2022). Statistically, Egypt is one of the countries with the largest percentage of internet users (71.9%), considered among the highest in Africa (World Bank, 2022). Further, Egypt's younger generation was reported to represent a higher share of Instagram total users, accounting to 38% of those who age between 18 to 24 years old, and 29% of those who age 25-34 years old (Statista, 2022). It is key to note that consumers now communicate with each other across multiple social media platforms, generating FoMO to other local and international consumers (Hodkinson, 2019). For this reason, it is appropriate to explore the importance of social media intensity for the Fomsumers' post-purchase responses.

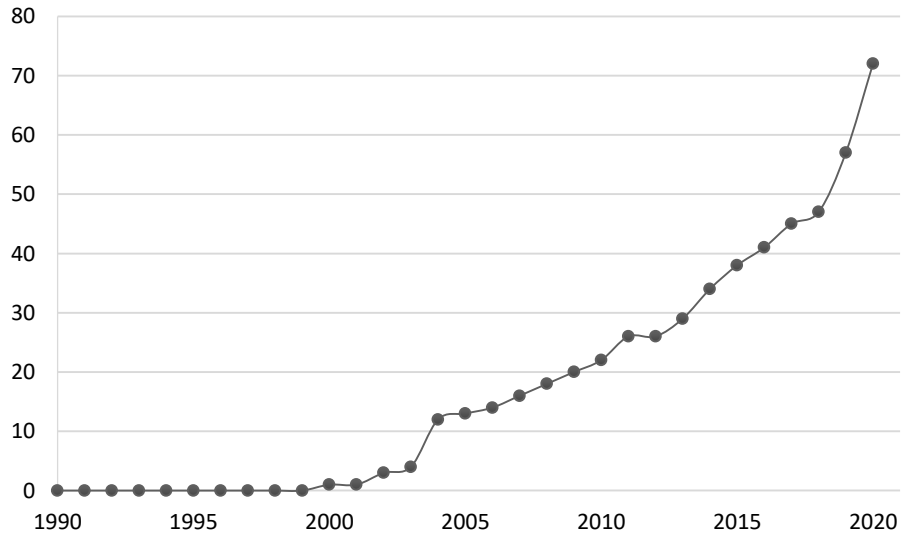


Figure 4. Individuals using the Internet (% of population) - Egypt, Arab Rep

Source: World Bank

A non-probability purposive sampling technique was employed, where the sample was chosen from the Egyptian population (Etikan et al., 2016). Non-probability sampling is defined as a technique that "relies on the personal judgement of the researcher rather than on chance to select sample elements" (Nunan et al., 2020, p. 412). Non-probability sampling differs from probability sampling which relies on randomly choosing participants for the study (Etikan et al., 2016). There is no need for probabilistic sampling under interpretivism, since data generalization will not be required (Collis & Hussey, 2014). Non-probability sampling is considered subjective when choosing the sample and does not necessarily represent the true population of the society, preventing generalization (Andrade, 2021; Daymon & Holloway, 2011). Nevertheless, reliable data can be generated from samples relying on knowledgeable participants purposively selected considering the topic under analysis (Tongco, 2007). Non-probability sampling includes convenience and purposive techniques (Etikan et al., 2016). Convenience sampling allows to obtain a sample that is easier for the researcher to access, while purposive sampling allows choosing the sample based on what deems more appropriate to fit the purpose of the study (Etikan et al., 2016). The study employed purposive homogeneous sampling technique, where participants who possessed certain qualities and characteristics, were included in the study to provide rich insight into the Fomsumer's post-purchase cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses when being exposed to FoMO appeals (Etikan et al., 2016). Homogeneous sampling focuses on selecting a sample of participants who have common features, to enable in-depth study of the group (Saunders et al., 2007).

A list of inclusion and exclusion criteria was set, and then based on such criteria, a sample of Egyptian participants who were considered appropriate for the development of the study, was selected (Daymon & Holloway, 2011). The first inclusion criterion was age. Egyptian millennial and generation Z consumers who were exposed to FoMO appeals were recruited, with ages ranging from 21 to 41 (mean 29 years), since there is evidence that FoMO is more prevalent among youngsters (Przybylski et al., 2013; Russel & Rogers, 2019). The young generations are perceived as social media addicts (Casale et al., 2018; Franchina et al., 2018; Tomczyk & Selmanagic-Lizde, 2018), making them more prone to be affected by FoMO, because they are constantly online, and up-to-date with their favourite brands, along with what others buy (Gillani, 2012; Jupowicz-Ginalska, 2019; Przybylski et al., 2013; Tomczyk & Selmanagic-Lizde, 2018). Millennials, specifically, were found to be highly engaged on social media (Russel & Rogers, 2019) for entertainment, work, connection, sharing, and being up-to-date (Bolton et al., 2013). Also, younger segments are considered to be very attractive targets for brands for their great potential as long-term profitable consumers (Mittal et al., 2020). When high in

FoMO, they are usually materialistic (Gillani, 2012) and more open to acquire conspicuous products or services that are no longer limited to the upper classes (Kim & Jang, 2014). As income gap increases, more individuals become unhappy when comparing their *status quo* with the very rich (Csikszentmihalyi, 1999). This results in stimulating envious discontent (Ger, 1997), which triggers FoMO (Mcdermott, 2017). Egypt's population is highly directed towards younger generations and is confirmed to be among the youngest nations across the Arab world with a median age of 24.6 years (Statista, 2022), adding to the relevance of this country as the target for the study.

All selected candidates had to be fluent in English language to facilitate the transcription process. Further, the number of females (80.7%) chosen to interview outweighed males (19.3%) because it was found that they are at more risk of experiencing FoMO (Aydin et al., 2019; Russel & Rogers, 2019), which clarifies why they are confirmed to be affectively and cognitively more impulsive (Coley & Burgess, 2003) and compulsive (Dittmar, 2005). Research indicates that females are more engaged on social media to know what is happening with their preferred brand (Jupowicz-Ginalska, 2019). Furthermore, previous studies revealed that women, compared to men, are more likely to experience post-purchase cognitive dissonance (Akbar et al., 2020), and regret (Coley & Burgess, 2003).

The inclusion process ended with focusing the study solely on critical incidents. Using CIT interviews meant that participants only had to share the incidents that were critical, which indicated that participants had a good recall of how and what exactly happened (Cassell & Symon, 2004). Good memory of the incident helps with the accuracy, validity, and reliability of data (Edvardsson & Roos, 2001). If the participant's memory of incident is vague, it will be challenging to obtain valid results (Edvardsson & Roos, 2001). Validity implies how precisely research findings illustrate actions, emotions and cognitions encountered in incidents, while reliability implies the ability to sustain similar results if the study got replicated (Collis & Hussey, 2014). The researchers continue to explain that under interpretivist paradigm, validity is likely to be higher than positivist, whereas reliability is less likely to occur due to its irrelevance in qualitative methods (Collis & Hussey, 2014).

A post via the social media platform "Instagram" was shared to invite consumers to participate voluntarily in an interview if they bought a product due to FoMO (Figure 5). The post was shared as a story, reaching 922 potential participants, and asking them whether they have made an unplanned purchase, only because they felt the pressure of missing out on a great opportunity. The researcher asked to call the participants whose answers were "Yes" to the question. Instagram was

chosen out of all other social media platforms because it had the accessibility to potential fellow candidates deemed appropriate for the study. Moreover, FoMO has been demonstrated to be exacerbated online, due to the influence of social media platforms in reaching out to plenty of consumers (Rajagopal et al., 2019). Also, youngsters on Instagram are more prone to impulse and compulsive purchases due to social interactions (Xiang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018). It was very important to pick interviewees who are comfortable with the researcher as people naturally open up with the ones they like (Schreier, 2012). Hence, the researcher picked interviewees who were among researcher's followers on Instagram to make sure participants speak freely with the researcher. Data analysis procedures are presented in the next section.

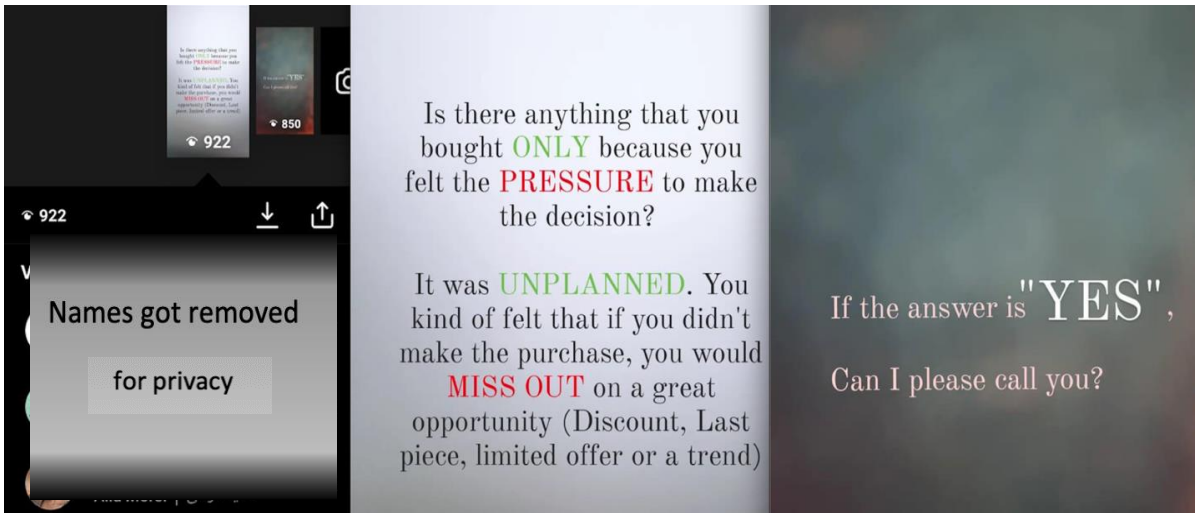


Figure 5. INSTAGRAM post used for purposive sampling.

4.6. Data Analysis Procedures

The interactive nature of qualitative data analysis enables the development of prominent themes, patterns, and relationships, while data is being collected (Saunders et al., 2007). Accordingly, qualitative data collection is considered abductive as it combines deductive and inductive methods, where the latter allows key codes, concepts, and categories to be developed and evolved from data (Schreier, 2012). The purpose of data analysis is to efficiently condense and provide clear description of data that could be effectively used for practical purposes (Flanagan, 1954). Using CIT, interviewers

are mandated to evaluate, record, and classify behaviours and data while the facts are still fresh in the interviewer's mind (Flanagan, 1954). Thus, the interviews recorded were transcribed manually on the same day or next day and renamed with numbers assigned to each interviewee. Individual responses were independently transcribed and vetted by the researcher (Flanagan, 1954). Each interviewee's data were coded one at a time, in parallel with conducting interviews (Saldaña, 2009). The researcher practiced line-by-line manual coding, considering that researchers get enlightened with novel ideas that might be highly beneficial for the study (Charmaz, 2006; Patton, 2002).

The coding frame started with selecting solely relevant data generated from the respondents' replies to all research questions that were designed to address each aspect of the Fomsumer's buying-decision response model (Schreier, 2012). In order not to get lost going through the many transcripts that needed to be coded, the researcher began by breaking down data and selecting different parts of the document separately (Schreier, 2012). The researcher went through the respondent's answers to the multiple questions asked one at a time.

The second phase of the coding frame involved deciding on the structure of categories and sub-categories to be used (Schreier, 2012). The study relied on abductive qualitative content analysis strategy which mixed between deductive concept-driven and inductive data-driven categories (Schreier, 2012). The researcher initiated a coding frame with the codes and categories deducted from previous literature and critical reasoning, then inductive categories and subcategories were added when new codes emerged during the analysis (Saunders et al., 2007; Schreier, 2012). Significant key categories, themes, and concepts were inductively formulated from critical incidents in a subjective manner (Daymon & Holloway, 2011; Flanagan, 1954; Schreier, 2012). Each time a new code was identified, previous transcripts were revisited to assess possible new insights.

In the third phase, the meaning of the codes and categories was established based on the literature and data. The definitions were discussed between the researcher and the supervisors until an agreement was reached. This process is recommended to avoid any confusion and inconsistencies (Schreier, 2012), thus contributing to increasing the trustworthiness of the coding process (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020). The final step in the coding structure according to Schreier (2012) is to review and expand all categories so that there are no duplicate categories. The framework used gave a sense of direction for the data analysis (Saunders et al., 2007). The four stages process resulted in the coding table (Appendix 2), with the list of codes, categories, and respective meanings that guided the coding and analysis work.

Moreover, Rustemeyer in 1992 argued that one of the requirements for coding frames is saturation, which requires constructing the coding frame in such a way that the coding frequency for all categories and subcategories equals 1 or higher, besides using each subcategory at least once and that no subcategory remains 'empty' (Schreier, 2012, p. 77). Thus, each code or category was assigned a total number of frequencies to indicate how many times they were mentioned (Appendix 3).

The coding process in this study is considered conceptual rather than descriptive, as it involves establishing relationships and links between codes, concepts, and data to challenge existing knowledge and provide better insight (Schreier, 2012). Further, it is advised not to rely on only one coding method as it hinders the researcher's ability to "transcend to more conceptual and theoretical levels of analysis and insight" (Saldaña, 2009, p. 77). Thus, the researcher relied on two-cycle coding methods for each had a different purpose (Saldaña, 2009). In order to reduce the amount of data and discover meaning, first cycle coding method was applied to rely on a mixture of initial, emergent, and in-vivo coding (Saldaña, 2009, p. 77). In vivo coding extracts words or excerpts from participants so their own reality would be depicted fairly; seeking truth and objectivity by minimizing the researcher's bias (Patton, 2002). Analysis was then followed by second cycle coding method comprised of pattern coding and focused coding, meaning that codes were grouped together in the form of categories based on their similarity as a pattern, and were later transformed into themes, explaining the relationship between the categories (Saldaña, 2009). In addition, codes believed to be notably salient and frequent were focused on and categorized (Charmaz, 2006).

The researcher relied on content analysis to classify the data gathered and offer an understanding of the frequency and patterns of factors related to the phenomenon of interest (Gremler, 2004). Content analysis is a relevant method used to qualitatively study consumer behaviour, particularly cognitive, affective, and behavioural consumer responses generated from different types of message content (Kolbe & Burnett, 1991). Both positive and negative incidents were collected, reflecting whether Fomsumers perceived purchasing decisions in a positive or negative light (Gremler, 2004). Negative incidents though were found to have a greater impact on consumers than positive ones (Edvardsson & Roos, 2001).

Furthermore, reliability is considered an important factor in content analysis (Gremler, 2004), as it affects the research quality (Kolbe & Burnett, 1991). Accordingly, after every interview, the researcher took self-memos regarding what was understood and perceived to trace the development

of ideas (Saunders et al., 2007). Later, the memos were discussed with all participants for their affirmation regarding researcher's interpretation, to ensure consistency in texts, and trustworthiness of findings (Stemler, 2001). Besides, to ensure the reliability of the coding process, intercoder reliability was achieved by two coders who independently coded a sample of the data (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020). Intercoder reliability is considered an important measure in research, particularly in content analysis and qualitative research, as it helps to ensure that the coding process is reliable and valid (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020). There are several methods for measuring intercoder reliability, including percentage agreement, Krippendorff's alpha, and Cohen's kappa (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020). The scholars continued to argue that Cohen's kappa is a widely used measure of intercoder reliability that takes into account the possibility of agreement occurring by chance (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020). It is calculated by comparing the observed agreement between coders with the expected agreement that would occur by chance (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020). Cohen's kappa ranges from -1 to 1, with negative values indicating no agreement and values close to 1 indicating high agreement (Banerjee et al., 1999). A value of 0 indicates agreement that is no better than chance (Banerjee et al., 1999). Hence, the coders first met to establish a set of codes and categories for the data based on the research objectives and literature review. Then coders began to code a random subset of 20% of the data and calculated to measure their level of agreement. The initial percentage agreement indicated substantial agreement between the coders. Any discrepancies in coding were discussed, and the codes were refined and clarified until a consensus has been reached.

Findings were represented using themes, categories, and codes (Appendix 4). Findings comprised of main themes developed concerning Fomsumers types, their buying decision patterns, and post-purchase responses. Themes emerged through grouping similar and repetitive codes (Daymon & Holloway, 2011), followed by the insertion of participants' excerpts to present forward their voices in the study. Excerpts were inserted to assist readers in evaluating the accuracy and transparency of the analysis and for the findings to become more strengthened (Creswell, 2007).

4.7. Ethical Considerations

The importance of acting in an ethical manner is key when conducting research studies, for it serves as an indication of how concerned the researcher is about the finding's impact on practitioners and academic scholars (Cassell & Symon, 2004). The researcher behaved in a careful manner and intended to focus on participants' rights at every step of the research process (Saunders et al., 2007). Before attempting to interview volunteers, who agreed to participate in the study, the researcher informed participants about the research objective of exploring consumer's post-purchase consequences resulting from their unplanned buying-decisions triggered by FoMO appeals. The interview process was also explained beforehand, in terms of the expected duration for conducting an interview, participant's right to not answer any question asked, and their contribution to audio recording. Participants were informed that findings might be published in an academic journal.

Participants were asked for their consent to having the interview recorded by the researcher after informing them that it would be only used for research purposes (Schreier, 2012). All participants signed a consent form (Appendix 4), sent by e-mail previously to the interview, comprised of informational sections related to the purpose of the research, the functioning of the session, and a guarantee of participants' rights (Cassell & Symon, 2004). During the interviews, the researcher was keen not to force participants into telling more than they felt at ease with (Schreier, 2012). After the interview ended, the researcher thanked the participant for his/her valuable contribution and revealed that any data would be treated with confidentiality (Cassell & Symon, 2004).

Anything mentioned by participants concerning their privacy was protected (Patton, 2002). Research process integrity and confidentiality were achieved in the sense that names of brands, products, or persons stated by participants were protected by relying on a strict code of ethics for handling recordings and transcribed materials (Cassell & Symon, 2004; Chell & Pittaway, 1998). Excerpts in analysis were followed by numeric codes that represent the interviewee number (e.g., Int2) and the number of the incident reported by him/her (e.g., Inc2.2) to ensure anonymity.

The following chapter presents the main findings resulting from the data analysis of the 87 critical incidents collected from the interviews with 57 participants. Results of the CIT interviews are displayed to gain a better understanding of Fomsumers. The analysis clarifies the main triggers for

FoMO, product or service types consumed, different purchase decision types, and cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses of Fomsumers.

5. Findings

Main findings of the study are divided into two parts. The first part describes the content analysis and categorization of the results from CIT interviews to allow comprehension of Fomsumers' decision process and their post-purchase cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses. The second section of the findings presents a deeper analysis of these results to identify patterns and offer insights into the relationships between themes underlying Fomsumers' decision process.

The study's results extend the proposed conceptual FoMO response model, by offering a thorough explanation of the Fomsumer's buying-decision process (Figure 6). The resulting model demonstrates the relationship between incident types, Fomsumer's perceptions of the type of the product purchased, and the FoMO triggers that prompted various buying-behaviour types. All these factors guided the post-purchase responses.

The analysis begins with exploring the relationships between the components of the model to identify Fomsumers' buying-decisions patterns and post-purchase behavioural outcomes. Research propositions are verified in light of the findings.

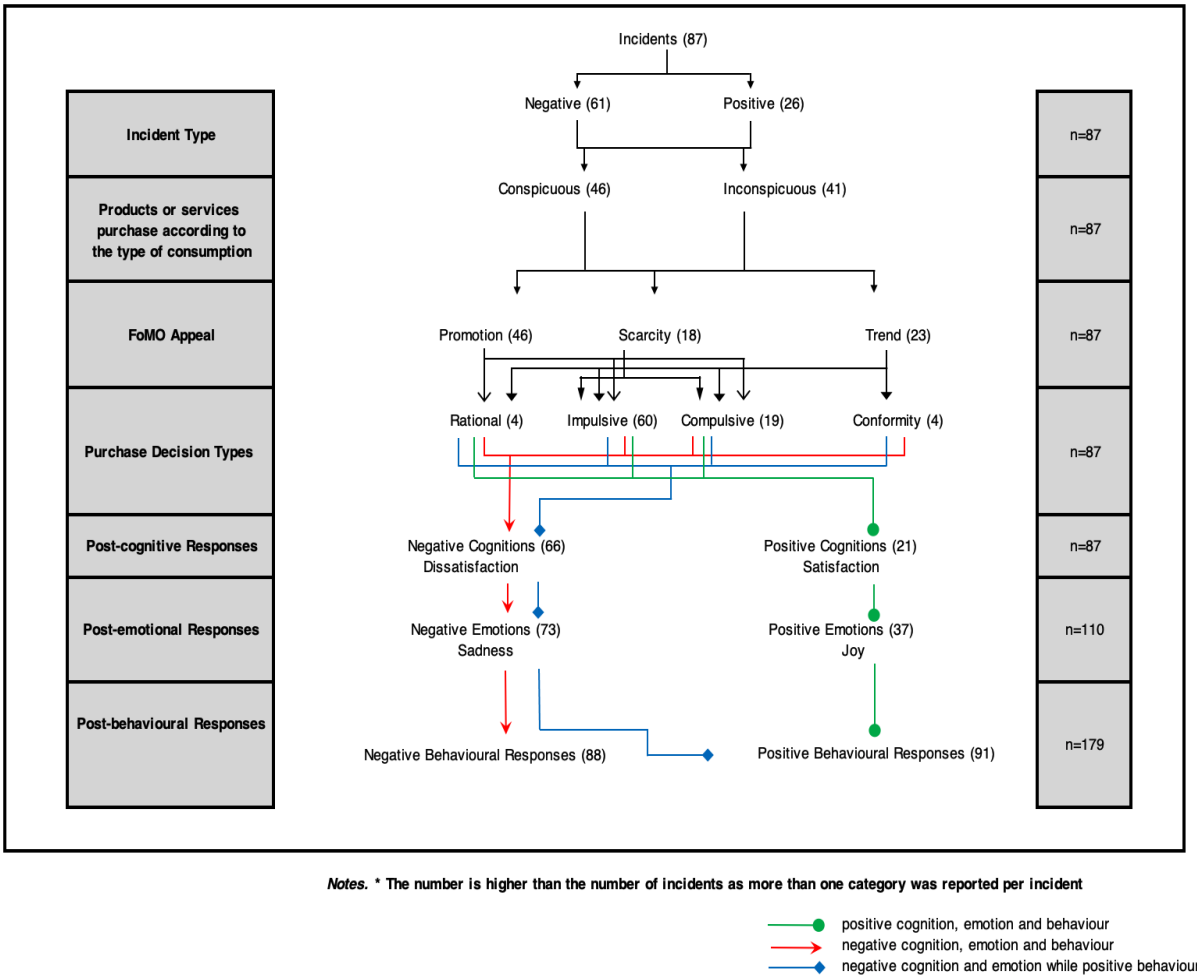


Figure 6. Fomsumer Response Model

5.1. Critical Incidents' categorization

Participants were first asked to think of shopping situations that they experienced recently, in which they felt they had to have a particular product or had a strong feeling of fearing being missing out on something if they would not make the purchase. These situations should have made them either significantly happy (satisfied) or unhappy (dissatisfied). Then, they were invited to describe the situation. Findings were split between negative and positive incidents, where Fomsumers regarded their purchasing decisions in a positive or negative light (Gremler, 2004). A total of 87 incidents were analyzed, composed of 26 positive incidents and 61 negative incidents (Table 5).

Table 5. Critical incidents

Categories	nr.	%	Sub-categories	nr.	%
Negative incidents	61	70,1	Purchasing an unnecessary item	34	39,1
			Purchase of underperforming products	27	31,0
Positive incidents	26	29,9	Good personal or financial investment	11	12,7
			Unplanned purchase that was a good deal	7	8,1
			Planned acquisition with better conditions	5	5,7
			Opportunities facilitating decision-making	3	3,4
Total	**87**	100,0		**87**	100,0

5.1.1. *Negative Incidents*

Negative incidents are referred to all the unsatisfactory experiences from the qualitative description of the circumstances surrounding the evaluation (Gabbott & Hogg, 1996). Although some participants considered their purchase experiences positive, the majority reported being significantly unhappy or unsatisfied with their buying-decisions. Sixty-one incidents related to participants who reported unplanned purchase situations in which either they ended purchasing something they did not need, or the products they bought failed to meet their expectations.

Participants expressed their devastation and disappointment due to buying items that were **unnecessary**, as elaborated in many incidents (34), «*it **wasn't so necessary**, I would definitely survive without them*» (Int32; Inc32.2). Some participants anticipated that the item was not going to be essential for they dislike the product in the first place, yet the marketing appeals were tempting enough to proceed with the purchase, as they share: «*I thought about it a bit because I was hesitant [but] the offer was amazing, they're on sale like 70% off. So, I bought when I kind of knew that I **wasn't going to use** it [...] I **haven't worn them once***» (Int14; Inc14.1); and «*I knew I was not going to wear as much as they're quite high and I don't like high boots [...] it was a good deal [but] it's occupying a space in my life, **like I don't need** it*» (Int19; Inc19.1).

The second reason reported for participants' dissatisfaction was underperformances of products, which occur when products do not meet consumers' expectations in terms of quality (Rajagopal et al., 2019). Participants' unhappiness with the purchasing decision due to buying **underperforming products** was found in multiple incidents (27), as the following quotes display: *«It is **not functioning properly** as it should. I hear people fine, but people don't hear me»* (Int2; Inc2.2); «*I have tried once, and it was **slower and takes a lot of effort** [...] like 10 minutes to*

shave» (Int6; Inc6.2); and «*I ordered it, and I received it after a few days and the* ***quality was very poor***» (Int24; Inc24.2).

Unnecessary and underperforming purchases that involved quite some large amount of money, were found to exacerbate participants' overall dissatisfaction with their buying situation, as the following quotations exemplify: «*it was very expensive [...] I rushed into making this decision and in the end, it* ***wasn't like my expectation***» (Inc15.1); «***no one needs*** *a three thousand Egyptian pound coffee machine at home*» (Int2; Inc2.1); and «*I got it without putting the price in consideration [...] it* ***wasn't a happy moment*** *when I got it*» (Int18; Inc18.1).

5.1.2. *Positive Incidents*

Positive incidents are referred to all satisfactory experiences from the qualitative description of the circumstances surrounding the evaluation (Gabbott & Hogg, 1996). As for this type of incidents (26), participants mentioned their reasons for being satisfied including purchases that were considered a good personal or financial investment, unplanned purchases that turned out to be a good deal, planned purchases that were bought with better conditions, and opportunities that facilitated and eased the decision-making process for consumers.

Most of positive incidents related to purchases that were considered **good personal or financial investments** (11), showing that satisfied participants believe their purchase decision was a good investment of money, as it offered them significant personal gains, such as emotional or social rewards. As participants share: «*owning a branded item makes me feel* ***more comforting****, and I* ***feel more belonging*** *within the community that I am present within*» (Int7; Inc7.1). One of the reported incidents regards to a financial investment that paid off: «*so, I bought some [cryptocurrency name], now the* ***price really went up... Yeah****!* » (Int8; Inc8.2).

In other cases, positive incidents were related to an **unplanned purchase that was a good deal** (7). Participants were happy with buying-decisions that were not intended, but turned out to be a good deal, as the following quotes illustrate: «*I* ***wasn't planning on buying*** *it [...]. [But] it* ***was a good deal*** *because I'm going to need it*» (Int41; Inc41.1). For some participants, the unplanned purchase was considered a good deal because the item they purchased satisfied an existing need, as reported by several participants: «*summer was approaching and that* ***was***

something that I was thinking about» (Int21; Inc21.1); and «*I had an event, so I* ***did need footwear*** *actually*» (Int44; Inc44.2).

Planned acquisition with better conditions (5) was also associated to positive incidents. Some participants report being compelled to purchase something that they originally wanted but the decision was made only when they found they could make it with better conditions. As Int3 states, «*I* ***had my eye on it for a while****, and then* ***when it went on sale*** *[...]* ***both saving money and having the product that I wanted*** *in the first place*» (Inc3.1). Another participant shares that he/she «*really* ***liked*** *it, but thought it was a little bit* ***overpriced*** *[...].* ***Then,*** *there was this* ***mega sale***» (Int44; Inc44.1).

A few participants reported positive incidents as **opportunities facilitating decision-making** (3), meaning that they were hesitant, but some factors encouraged them to purchase, reducing their cognitive effort or anticipated regret for not buying. In their own words: «*I* ***wasn't convinced 100%*** *but [...] I had the* ***opportunity*** *to get it with a different price*» (Int4; Inc4.1); «*actually I* ***was rethinking*** *my decision [...] »* (Int6; Inc6.1), but then the appealing selling conditions and the required characteristics of the product eased the decision. High performance and good quality of products elicited happiness and expedited decision making, as reported by one of the participants «*it's better to* ***have it now*** *[...] the color attracted me and it's so comfortable and light*» (Int22; Inc22.1).

As shown earlier in Figure 6, feeling significantly dissatisfied or satisfied with critical purchases made is closely related to the type of product purchased. For the purpose of the research, the products are classified according to the type of consumption, as conspicuous and inconspicuous. Next section discusses, in details, product types involved in Fomsumers' purchase incidents.

5.2. Consumption Types Involved in The Purchase Incidents

Participants were asked to refer to the product or service purchased so a better insight could be obtained regarding the consumption behaviour of Fomsumers, and to identify the type of products and services that was more involved with FoMO. Products or services were categorized as

conspicuous (46) or inconspicuous (41) (Table 6). Conspicuous products or services are considered publicly visible goods that are consumed to indicate social status and are very expensive compared to inconspicuous goods (Bagwell & Bernheim, 1996). Consumers who purchase inconspicuous goods, are usually seeking functionality of products to be consumed in private (Poku & Abdul-Muhmin, 2017; Stern, 1962).

Table 6: Types of products or services purchased

Categories	nr.	%	Sub-categories	nr.	%
Conspicuous	46	51,7	Fashion items	22	25,3
			Personal gadgets	11	12,6
			Branded cosmetics	10	11,5
			Decorative items	3	3,4
Inconspicuous	41	48,3	Functional clothing	26	30,0
			Unnoticeable cosmetics	8	9,3
			Personal and household electronics	4	4,5
			Services	3	3,4
Total	**87**	100,0		**87**	100,0

5.2.1. *Conspicuous Products*

A total of 46 incidents were reported by participants as involving purchase decisions of flashy products for the purpose of showing off. Conspicuous purchases involved branded fashion items, personal gadgets, branded makeup, and perfumes, categorized as cosmetics, and decorative items. It was reported that 32 incidents regard to consumers who stated that their conspicuous consumptions were associated with unhappy situations, while 14 incidents regard to participants who felt significantly happy with the conspicuous purchase made.

Despite how unnecessary the products may have been, participants who sought self-assurance were drawn to making purchases that allowed them to stand out, as considerable incidents (22) exhibit the desire for respondents to belong and enhance self-confidence through buying vivid **fashion products**: «***[Brand name] bag*** *as I do* ***love brands****, they are* ***a statement*** *[...] after coming back to my senses and not having the shopping rush, I felt that* ***I did not need that*** *from the beginning*» (Int17; Inc17.1). Other participants reported incidents in which they associated their consumption of conspicuous fashion items with positive situations for being able to signal social status and enhance one's confidence: «*you kind* ***of belong to certain communities*** *where you*

*wear **branded bags** [...]. In my working field, I get invited to top events where the people you meet are celebrities wearing brands from head to toe [...] somehow you feel you are in the right crowd by wearing the same [...]. It **increases your self-esteem** when they accept you and make you part of their community*» (Int7; Inc7.1). Some incidents (11) were described by participants who bought **personal gadgets,** varying between smartphones, smart watches, earphones, videogames, and other small personal electronic devices, because of the pressure they felt to fit in their communities. Almost all incidents (10) were referred by participants who viewed negatively their conspicuous personal gadgets consumption because it was regarded as an unnecessary purchase, as Int20 demonstrates, «*I got the **new [Brand name] 2.0** because I tried it in Dubai and then I **thought that I will need it**, when actually **in reality I don't** [...], I was pressured because I tried It and I thought that everybody has it now and it's the new trend*» (Inc20.1); and «*recently I bought **a [Brand name]** just because I was around an environment that they were all like kite surfing diving doing water activities [...] I would purchase anything **technological** that is a trend [...] I literally **did not use** it*» (Int56; Inc56.1). Only one incident was mentioned by a participant who viewed positively the purchases and stated that a luxurious personal gadget was bought to enhance the level of confidence: «*the **[Brand name] watch** was not like the necessity [...] spend a little bit of **money** on **something that is luxurious**, and I would **feel confident** wearing*» (Int34; Inc34.3).

Participants reported in few incidents (10) purchasing branded **cosmetics** to «***stand out like a diva**! »* (Int15; Inc15.1). Some participants communicated their instant gratification when buying their make-up items, stating they were «*super excited to see how it will **reflect on skin and make it blush***» (Int15; Inc15.1), yet associated their buying-decisions with negative incidents (7). After consuming conspicuous cosmetics, few participants regarded their items purchased as nonessential or underperforming: «***make-up from [Brand name]** that I didn't benefit from as much as I thought*» (Int40; Inc40.1); and «*bought the **[Brand name] three in one foundation**, and it was horrible*» (Int37; Inc37.1). Yet, other participants who bought conspicuous cosmetics were satisfied with the result of their buying-decisions, as reported in very few incidents (3), «*the **foundation** really sticks for a long time, and it really looks good, and the coverage is very high coverage*» (Int43; Inc43.2).

Very small number of incidents (3) were described by participants who consumed **decorative items** in the form of «***chocolate bunnies** and eggs and the ducks **for Easter***» (Int11; Inc11.1), or home accessories, such as «*a **nice blanket to decorate my home***» (Int27; Inc27.2).

Two of the incidents involved participants who regarded their purchases as nonessential: «*I don't need them. They are just hanging there in my drawer*» (Int27 Inc27.2); and «*It was a purchase that wasn't necessary*» (Int35 Inc35.1). Only one incident belonged to a participant who found the conspicuous decorative goods purchased very satisfying as there will be no need to «*be looking around it all the shops later on*» (Int11; Inc11.1).

5.2.2. *Inconspicuous Products*

Findings show a similar proportion of critical incidents describing inconspicuous consumption situations (41). Several participants stated that they reasoned their decision before making their purchases, and only bought the products they considered essential, including **functional clothing** items (26), **unnoticeable cosmetics** (8), **personal and household electronics** (4), and **services** (3). As several participants share, «*I was rethinking whether my decision would have survived, but then I said yes, it's* ***good quality*** *and this is exactly what my mom was looking for [...]. I bought a* ***bag*** *for my mom*» (Int6; Inc6.1); «*I would rather pay for a* ***good leather product*** *than just pay for something that's artificial. It* ***lasts longer****, it* ***doesn't lose its authenticity*** *and it* ***keeps the value***» (Int19; Inc19.1); and «*I wasn't concerned to be honest; I was like, no it's a great deal I needed the product [...],* ***beauty product it was oil for my face***» (Int12; Inc12.1). Some participants revealed that they preferred buying «***nameless brands*** *[instead of] having the logo shown*» (Int19; Inc19.1) to allow one to stand out rather than mirror others behaviour: «*I feel like it's a very social thing which is not my style. I* ***wouldn't get something that when everyone sees, knows what it is****. I think it's more* ***authentic,*** *you end up having your* ***own style***» (Int19; Inc19.1).

Even though inconspicuous purchases involved some rationality from participants, it was found that only 12 incidents were reported as positive shopping situations, while 29 incidents were viewed as negative. Participants thoroughly evaluated the buying-decision before making a necessary purchase, yet they were unhappy with the unplanned buying situation as the inconspicuous **clothing** and **unnoticeable cosmetics** failed to meet their expectations, as demonstrated in the description of several incidents.: «*I actually needed one as* ***normal wallet*** *wasn't fitting in my small bags [...] usually when I buy things, I think about it once or twice because I don't like buying things and not using them [...] the cardholder was not the best quality, I wore it once and then left it in my drawer*» (Int34; Inc34.1); and «*I'm trying different products to see what works for me [...]* ***body scrubs*** *smell*

good but they don't really do the job» (Int41; Inc41.3). The majority of incidents related to the purchase of inconspicuous **personal and household electronics**, were negatively viewed by participants (3 incidents): «*I purchased a* ***home bike*** *that I knew I wouldn´t use*» (Int47; Inc47.1). Most participants who purchased **services** to consume in private reported that they were unhappy (2 incidents) with their choice, ranging from «***app prescription***» (Int8; Inc8.1), to «***exclusive card membership***» (Int29; Inc29.1). Unhappy participants mentioned that they barely «*used it much*» (Int29; Inc29.1).

A minority of participants associated their rational or irrational inconspicuous purchases with positive situations, believing it was a great deal: «*I decided to look around. I thought everything is very expensive, except that there was an offer on* ***body lotions****. This got me very excited*» (Int16; Inc16.1); and «*I felt really happy that I got my size and the* ***shoes*** *I want at the same time with very good price*» (Int24; Inc24.1). Some participants were so happy that they decided to hang on to their purchases for years, as they share: «*I put the money to the* ***jumper*** *and now I still have it all those years later, so it was worth all of it*» (Int32; Inc32.1); and «*I still wear some of the stuff and it feels great*» (Int39; Inc39.2).

Using FoMO appeals, participants were found to be compelled to make purchases that were either conspicuous or inconspicuous. In the next section, the study expounds the different marketing appeals triggering FoMO in participants.

5.3. FoMO Marketing Appeals

To identify what triggers prompted the purchase decision, participants were asked to identify what and who influenced the highly satisfying or dissatisfying shopping experience they reported. This was central to the research as identifying the triggers of FoMO would help to discover which marketing appeals have higher effect on FoMO. Results indicate that all 87 incidents were mainly associated with three types of triggers: promotions (46), trend (23), and scarcity (18) (Table 7).

Table 7: FoMO marketing appeals

Categories	nr.	%	Sub-categories	nr.	%
Promotions	46	52,9	Price discounts	39	44,8
			Buy one get one free (BOGOF)	7	8,0
Trend	23	26,4	Peer pressure from family and friends	17	19,5
			Peer pressure from social media/influencers	6	6,9
Scarcity	18	20,7	Limited availability	13	15,0
			Limited offer (time pressure)	5	5,8
Total	**87**	100,0		**87**	100,0

5.3.1. *Promotion*

The study found that the most common trigger participants encounter is promotion (46 incidents). Promotion appeal is a tactic used to stimulate buying-decisions through offering a short-term value to goods (Sinha & Smith, 2000). Promotion strategy includes **price discounts**, where prices of products are reduced as an offer to consumers (Xu & Huang, 2014). Several incidents are reported by participants who made purchases because they were tempted by a massive **discount** (39 incidents), as shown by some interviewees: «*it was on **a significant sale like 40%**. I felt it's a bargain [...] I found that **humongous sign saying on sale** [...] the only influence was the **cost deduction***» (Int5; Inc5.1); «*there was **massive offer** on it because naturally it's very expensive and there was **50% discount***» (Int43; Inc43.1); and «*It was **half price***» (Int16; Inc16.1).

Another promotional strategy mentioned by participants is **"Buy One Get One Free" (BOGOF)**, where more of the products are offered at the same price (Sinha & Smith, 2000). A smaller number of incidents were reported by participants who were stimulated by **BOGOF** triggers (7). In these situations, consumers felt the urge to buy to benefit from a free product, as mentioned in some incidents.: «*she was like, uh yeah, we **have an offer,** it's a **three for two** [...] those **deals** are not always that much of the real deal [...]* [but] *I couldn't resist buying*» (Int12; Inc12.1); «*I was afraid I wouldn't find these things later on and because I didn't want **to miss out on the offer available which is buy two get one free***» (Int19; Inc19.2); and «*I found an **offer** if you **buy two you get two free** and I was encouraged so much*» (Int25; Inc25.1).

5.3.2. *Trend*

The second type of FOMO triggers is the trend appeal (23), which prompts Fomsumers to conform with tendencies in consumer interest and behaviour (Du & Kamakura, 2012). (Clasen & Brown, 1985) argued that peer pressure refers to the ones belonging to certain communities, who adapt and comply according to traits and habits of peers. The study shows that many of these incidents regard participants who make buying choices based on **peer pressure from family and friends** (17): «*my **ex-girlfriend** convinced me to buy it*» (Int6; Inc6.2); and «*because of **my friend**, she encouraged me to take care of my body*» (Int41; Inc41.3).

Few other incidents (6) relate to participants who felt **peer pressure from social media/influencers**. **Influencers** on social media platforms, were announced by participants to have strongly affected their buying-decisions, as shown in few incidents, «*on **social media I saw [Influencer's name]** wearing her tennis necklace and she put the gummy bear that looked very fashionable [...] I wanted to get it just to **belong to the trend***» (Int18; Inc18.1). It was clear that by observing «*lots of **bloggers, influencers**, and makeup artists*» (Int25; Inc25.2), an existing need was established in participants to consume the same product: «*it looks really nice when they used it, and I was like "Oh my God" if I ever see this product anywhere**, I'm gonna get it right now***» (Int25; Inc25.2); and «*it was on **her story**. She was **triggering it on Instagram** [...] watching **influencers** really affects my buying-decision*» (Int15; Inc15.1).

Fomsumers felt the pressure to consume what is «*very trendy now* [because if they] *don't wear it now, it's going to go out of style*» (Int28; Inc28.1). For some participants they chose to wear conspicuous «*extremely overpriced swimming suits*» (Int27; Inc27.1) for instance, to fit in societies and adapt to «*social norm*» (Int27; Inc27.1).

5.3.3. *Scarcity*

Scarcity is referring to products that are in short supply, rare, or not easy to find (Brock, 1968). The analysis of the incidents also revealed that the decision process expedited when products are curtailed or limited by time constraint. Nineteen incidents indicated that buying-decisions were triggered by scarcity appeal. Participants were shown to get pressured due to **limited availability** (13 incidents) of the desired item, color, or size, because of the limited quantities and conditions

offered by the seller. Hence, participants were found to get triggered by "last piece" items to make irrational purchases rather than rational buying-decisions, as recorded in few incidents «*It was my size, and it was* ***the last one*** *and I never really find my size anywhere, it just felt like it was for me [...] felt the pressure because it was the last one I'm going to* ***miss out*** *on»* (Int19; Inc19.1); and «*when I find something [and it is]* ***a last piece****, I don't want to go home and regret this later so that's why I just go ahead and buy the thing»* (Int24; Inc24.1). Other incidents concern participants who were afraid to miss out on chances that rarely occur: «*I was* ***afraid that I will not have this chance*** *to get it elsewhere because I know* ***they don't ship to my country****»* (Int9; Inc9.1); «*I learned from previous experience that if I don't buy them very early, I* ***will not find*** *them»* (Int11; Inc11.1); and «*the reason is I might* ***not find the size and the branch itself it's no longer in Alexandria*** *[...] when I was in Cairo I thought of getting it so that I won't feel that it was a* ***chance*** *and I didn't use [...] usually the feeling of this* ***scarcity*** *that I might not find my size, is the main reason pushing me to take the decision that it's better to have it now»* (Int22; Inc22.1).

Time pressure was shown to be another type of scarcity appeal that has a strong effect in creating a sense of urge for participants to make irrational purchases: «*It was* ***last day for offer*** *[...] was really an impulsive decision, like instantly I saw it, I bought it»* (Int28; Inc28.3). Few incidents show that **limiting** the duration of an **offer**, higher Fomsumer's vulnerability to make instant purchases (5), as exemplified by the following quotes: «***deal of the day*** *always makes you feel like it's* ***going tomorrow****. If I don't take it, it goes»* (Int33; Inc33.2); «*I don't know I felt really triggered for the* ***countdown of the offer****, like there was a block. I was blindfolded»* (Int36; Inc36.1); and «*I bought because of the pressure of having a discount for one day only*» (Int23; Inc23.1).

To add, scarcity was highly affected by promotion, since FoMO was exacerbated more strongly when offers accompanied limited availability trigger. As one participant states, «***only three left in stock*** *[...] don't miss the opportunity as it was limited quantity and on promotion. It's* ***not like*** *you can* ***find it easily*** *in Egypt*» (Int15; Inc15.1). It was obvious in many incidents that promotion had a stronger effect in sparking the desire in consumers to make the purchase when it was linked with time pressure. Participants also revealed to become more pressured when acknowledging that the offer is limited by a time frame they could miss out on because it was «*a* ***black Friday****»* (Int12; Inc12.2) opportunity or «*it was on* ***Christmas*** *sale, and I felt like an inner obligation that I needed to buy because it was on* ***sale of about 50% or 70%****»* (Int17; Inc17.*1).*

As a consequence of the mentioned marketing FoMO-induced appeals, participants were engaged in different decision behaviour types, which will be explained in detail next.

5.4. Purchase Decision Types

To understand what different types of purchase behaviour were related to the participants' experiences triggered by FoMO appeals, they were asked to describe their decision process. This information was used to understand whether this was their usual decision style and to ascertain the influence of the triggers. The former (Table 8) includes nearly all reported incidents (83) integrating impulsive, compulsive, and conformity buying-decisions, while the latter considers calculated decisions (4). Irrational impulse, compulsive, and conformity decisions are regarded as unplanned buying behaviour, and rational decisions are considered planned buying behaviour (Inman et al., 2009).

Table 8: Purchase decision types

Categories	nr.	%	Sub-categories	nr.	%
Irrational	83	95,4	Impulsive	60	69,0
			Compulsive	19	21,8
			Conformity	4	4,6
Rational	4	4,6	Calculated	4	4,6
Total	**87**	100,0		87	100,0

5.4.1. *Impulsive*

Impulsive purchases were the most frequent type of buying-decisions reported among participants interviewed, accounting to 60 critical incidents. Impulsive purchases are made without any former planning, and with less rational decision-making (Dittmar & Drury, 2000; Liao et al., 2009; Stern, 1962). Impulsive purchases, in the form of immediate and instant actions taken by participants, were triggered by all the three different categories of FoMO marketing appeals found in the study. The following quotes illustrate the prevalence of this decision-making type: «*got it* ***on the spot***» (Int4; Inc4.1); «*It was* ***impulsive*** *because I had to* ***decide in a matter of minutes*** *because I*

was leaving anyway» (Int31; Inc31.1), and «***rushed my decision,** I buy it **immediately without considering***» (Int33; Inc33.1).

Few participants mentioned they were «***pressured** into making the buying-decision, due to an aggressive marketing [where they] could not miss out on new offers and new promotion, so technically [the product was] bought for this reason*» (Int29; Inc29.1), despite being extremely cautious «*I am not an easy decision maker, I take a lot of time*» (Int29; Inc29.1). Promotion was the trigger most often reported to prompt impulsive decisions for many participants: «*I bought **immediately without thinking twice**. It was more of an **impulsive** decision*» (Int44; Inc44.1); and «*I was **not rational**. It took me 20 minutes. I was more concerned **not to miss out on this price** more than I actually like the bag*» (Int17; Inc17.1). Participants stated that if it were not for the huge promotion, they would «*take time and the decision process would take longer*» (Int17; Inc17.1). Overall, impulse buying is regarded as unplanned purchases that occur due to the sudden feeling or urge to consume products experienced by Fomsumers.

5.4.2. *Compulsive*

Compulsive consumption is a form of uncontrollable buying behaviour due to loss of control where one tends to excessively buy, despite negative post-purchase consequences previously experienced (Dittmar et al., 2007). Excessive buying was recorded in 19 incidents that relate to participants who seek finding different results: «*every time I tell myself that maybe this time is different*» (Int46; Inc46.2); and «*I keep buying, saying this one will be better*» (Int41; Inc41.3). Moreover, buying in large quantities was found to bring a sense of consolation: «*it was a **bit excessive**, but, I mean, they are all gone [...] I usually **buy in excess** which is bad, but I like to have things in **abundance***» (Int11; Inc11.1); and «*I **got a couple** so that I can change from one color to another [...] all of the colors looked very tempting, so when you come to choose, it was very difficult to choose. I have a problem*» (Int18; Inc18.1).

Buying excessively was shown to be a form of defense mechanism, where participants bought in abundance to secure purchases of scarce goods, as demonstrated in few incidents: «*I like to **have almost all the styles** that will fit my body because usually I don't find what I like when there is an event*» (Int11; Inc11.2); and «*I was going to need them, but much later, not now, in six months*

maybe. When I saw it was back in stock, I ***bought immediately three, not just one*** *because I was afraid that they might go out of stock again*» (Int13; Inc13.1). Participants were found to engage in compulsive decisions, when they like a certain product, and start desiring to «*find more [of that particular product, fearing not to] find it again*» (Int5; Inc5.1). Thus, likability of products was revealed to be one of the fundamental motives behind compulsive behaviour, as demonstrated in few incidents, «*it's hard for me to find something which really satisfies me from all aspects, but when this happens,* ***I usually buy a lot, a stock***» (Int5; Inc5.1); and «*usually when I find something which I like very much, I can't resist buying in* ***large quantities***» (Int13; Inc13.1).

5.4.3. *Conformity*

The echoing consumption of a particular brand influenced by the desire not to be left out from the mainstream, is referred to as conformity consumption (Kang, Cui, et al., 2019). There were a few incidents (4) that related to conformity buying behaviour. Compliance was found to be the main drive behind participants buying-decisions in some situations: «*I thought* ***everyone is wearing*** *this and its nice, so I* ***got it without even trying to fit into*** *that. I was* ***influenced***» (Int23; Inc23.2); and «*there was this time where people started to wear the wide legged jeans with the ripped on the knee side [...] I saw more on celebrities and on influencers and then on many of my friends, so I* ***bought a couple of ones because I was influenced by seeing it on others****»* (Int28; Inc28.1). Moreover, trend appeal was revealed to be the only effective trigger for ones who engage in conformity consumption «*I chose it because of the* ***pressure of my friend*** *telling me it's very nice»* (Int34; Inc34.1); and «*it was in, and* ***everyone is wearing it****, so let me get it»* (Int37; Inc37.2)

Participants' emotions were found to precede cognitions, when engaging in conformity buying-decisions, as displayed in almost all incidents: «*I fall in love with the product. I don't need, I always want. I want it, I got it, that's it»* (Int37; Inc37.2); «*I really like buying because it makes me happy, even if I don't need them, it makes me happy»* (Int28; Inc28.1); and «*I like it enough to buy, I actually don't need these things*» (Int23; Inc23.2).

5.4.4. *Calculated*

Rational **buying** refers to purchases made with logic and guided by utilitarian motives (Liao et al., 2009). Only in very few situations (4 incidents), participants were able to think thoroughly and make a «***calculated** decision*» (Int2; Inc2.1) before attempting to make a purchase, when exposed to FoMO appeals. Participants who engaged in calculated buying decisions were shown to acquire only essential products: «*when it comes to buying stuff, I'm **not an impulsive person**, and I **didn't want to make an impulsive move**. I buy a product mostly because I need it. If I don't need it, I wouldn't care*» (Int8; Inc8.1).

Satisfied participants reported to have made their purchasing decision based on proper research and rationality, believing that the purchased items would be a great investment: «*when I buy, I think about its **usefulness** for me, like, in terms of **productivity** [...] I think of it as an **investment** [...] I would take the opinion of people that I know are knowledgeable*» (Int8; Inc8.1); «*I did my research well, so it was a very **rational decision***» (Int8; Inc8.2); and another «*saw a lot of videos*» *about the product he desired, and* «*bought it, once it became live in Egypt*» (Int43; Inc43.2).

Next, the findings reveal the cognitive processes, emotions felt, and behavioural outcomes of participants' post-purchases.

5.5. Post-decision Cognitive Responses

Cognitive responses refer to the thoughts encountered by Fomsumers regarding their purchases after they have attempted to make their buying-decisions (Hodkinson, 2019). To appraise the post-decision cognitive responses resulting from rational and irrational purchase decision types stimulated by FoMO appeals, participants were asked if they felt they have made the right decision, and to describe the ideas that came to their mind to assess it. Also, they were asked whether they would make the same decision in the present. Results show that participants held either positive or negative cognitions when evaluating the buying-decisions made. A total of 87 critical Incidents related to cognitive responses, where participants reported to have been either dissatisfied (66 incidents) or satisfied (21 incidents) (Table 9).

Table 9: Cognitive responses

Categories	nr.	%	Sub-categories	nr.	%
Dissatisfaction	66	75,9	Doubt credibility of judgement	38	43,8
			Negative disconfirmation	20	23,0
			Financial & psychological distress	8	9,1
Satisfaction	21	24,1	Positive disconfirmation	11	12,6
			Confirmation	10	11,5
Total	**87**	100,0		87	100,0

5.5.1. *Negative Cognition – Dissatisfaction*

The majority of incidents (66) were reported by participants who were shown to be dissatisfied when thinking about their buying-decisions after they consumed their purchases. Dissatisfaction is the state where customers become discontent because their expectations of purchases have not been met (Balakrishnan et al., 2020). Doubting credibility of judgement, negative disconfirmation, and distress were found to be different forms of negative cognitive responses of Fomsumers (Hodkinson, 2019).

Participants reported to have been dissatisfied when they doubted the credibility of their judgement, believing that the decision taken was not the best (Chen et al., 2015). Many incidents (38) were described by participants who **doubted the credibility of their judgement** post-buying. Participants thought negatively about their purchasing decisions when they realised that they impulsively bought nonessential purchases «*I realized it* ***wasn't the best decision****, it was a very* ***wrong decision*** *[...] I didn't need them at all*» (Int1; Inc1.1); «***If I would go back in time, I wouldn't buy it****, since I am not using it*» (Int17; Inc17.1). Irrational buyers started to question themselves asking what they were «*thinking about when making this purchase?* » (Int23; Inc23.2), and few even came to realization that they «***weren't completely right***» (Int40; Inc40.1), nor «*in a position to be making long-term purchases were [they] have to store unnecessary items*» (Int35; Inc35.1). Other participants also showed some level of dissatisfaction and continued blaming themselves for not spending «*time to search properly*» (Int21; Inc21.2) as their purchases failed to meet their expectations, as one interviewee shares, «*unfortunately when I received it was completely different, the size was different, and the material wasn't so good. I* ***took the wrong decision***» (Int21; Inc21.2).

Negative disconfirmation is experienced when outcomes are poorer than expectations (Oliver, 1980). Participants were dissatisfied with their purchases, when the products' performance was found to be below their expectations, causing an experience of **negative disconfirmation** (20 incidents), as shown in some incidents, «*it was **different than in reality**. It was **small**, it **doesn't fit**, so it's **not comfortable** and I don't see something unique about it. I realized it is not that catchy anymore*» (Int30; Inc30.1); «*it **wasn't as satisfying as it should have been** because when I got it, I felt like it was **a piece of plastic** literally*» (Int18; Inc18.1); and «*was just **terrible in real life**, its **color**, and the **texture of the fabric was weird**. I tried to convince myself that it's not so bad, then everybody was like, no... it's **really bad***» (Int26; Inc26.1). As a result, participants were found to blame themselves for not researching or thinking their purchases through: «*I should have read at least some reviews about this brand before buying*» (Int24; Inc24.2); and «*just not thinking about it enough or not making research about it to see if this really fit me or not*» (Int25; Inc25.2). To mitigate the setback, some participants gave their products away, as shown in some incidents: «*gave them out to other people who would benefit from them, so I would not feel bad*» (Int11; Inc11.2); or thought of selling it: «*I was ready if something happened and it did not fit me, I'm going to accept it and resell it or give it to somebody*» (Int9; Inc9.1); and «*I've been wanting to sell it*» (Int30; Inc30.1).

In some incidents (8), financial and mental constraints were shown to result in dissatisfaction when participants made unplanned purchases, hence, creating some sort of **financial and psychological distress**. Financial distress is defined as an intense physical or mental strain resulting from concerns and worries about financial matters (O'Neill et al., 2006). Few incidents show how participants were distressing about the purchase's expensive monetary value: «*I'm just stressed because of the **financial stress**. I ended up paying 1000 or 2000 **more than I can afford** just to use the 5% discount*» (Int54; Inc54.1); «*I **didn't have that enough money which is bad**, sometimes I spend money and I **don't have enough cash flow***» (Int11; Inc11.1); and «***it affected my paycheck somehow***» (Int45; Inc45.1). Psychological discomfort was also shown to cause dissatisfaction in a small number of incidents. **Psychological distress** is defined as an "emotional state that reflects unpleasant feelings and discomfort experiences" (Dang, 2020, p. 1429). As Int41 demonstrates, «*I also believe the company is giving me in an **unpleasant experience** if I got something which I like but it's **not easy to exchange it or to return,** or if the branch is **not so close** to me*» (Inc41.2).

Surprisingly, there were occasional incidents related to participants who were satisfied with their buying-decisions, yet continued to question whether the decision taken was correct or not. **Doubting credibility of judgement and financial distress** were found to allow participants to experience negative post-purchase cognition, despite their overall satisfaction with their purchases: «*I found this amazing place with sell stuff that I actually like and its similar to my style [...] I ended up* ***paying too much*** *for such stuff*» (Int39; Inc39.2); «***could have waited*** *for buying it from Germany so it would have* ***been half the price***» (Int12; Inc12.1); and «*I was very satisfied, but sometimes I* ***think*** *that* ***buying two was too much***» (Int16; Inc16.1). Participants were shown to doubt the credibility of their choices when considering potential regret, as elaborated in Inc3, «*maybe there is* ***always going to be something better***» (Int3).

5.5.2. *Positive Cognition – Satisfaction*

Satisfied participants were reported to have cognitively evaluated their purchases and resulted in either positive disconfirmation, or confirmation. Positive disconfirmation is realized when product's outcome exceeds expectations (Oliver, 1980). Confirmation occurs when the product's performance is equal to the expectation held before making the purchase (Phillips & Baumgartner, 2002).

Eleven incidents were reported by participants who experienced **positive disconfirmation** and were found to be satisfied, when evaluating cognitively their buying-decisions, thinking they «*made the* ***right decision***» (Int4; Inc4.1), specifically when the product's performance surpass their expectations, «*turned out to be* ***beyond amazing***» (Int4; Inc4.1); and «*when I learned about it more, I started to use it when I'm running, when I'm swimming to get my heart rate. It* ***turned out good***» (Int34; Inc34.3). Some participants were having doubts before making their purchases, sharing that «*I wasn't convinced 100%*» (Int4; Inc4.1); and «*I was afraid to buy online from a local unknown brand. I kind of expected the quality to be poor and the size to be wrong*» (Int21; Inc21.1) but were satisfied when the outcome exceeded their expectations: «*I have made the right decision for sure. That's my most preferred swimsuit*» (Int21; Inc21.1).

Participants who reported **confirmation** (10 incidents) have showed that they had certain expectations for the possessions they wanted to acquire: «*I envisioned myself wearing it at a particular event that I had in mind*» (Int7; Inc7.1), and were satisfied to find performance of purchases meet

their originally held expectations «***this is exactly what I was looking for***» (Int7; Inc7.1); and «*it* ***was worth all of it***» (Int32; Inc32.1). Participants were shown to develop expectations towards the consumption of products based on either previous consumption experience, «*it was a very good product, I have tried it*» (Int13; Inc13.1), or when developing affection or «*falling in love*» (Int43; Inc43.2) towards the product. When performance met prior expectations, participants mentioned that they were «*satisfied*» (Int43; Inc43.2) thinking «*it was the right decision*» (Int41; Inc41.1), and accordingly confirmation was realized. Moreover, it was found that incidents resulting in confirmation belonged to participants who gave little thought to financial concerns during the decision process right before attempting to make planned or unplanned purchases: «*I must consider the price*» (Int13; Inc13.1); «*weighted a little bit because I was short of cash, and I just was thinking about whether to buy it or not*» (Int22; Inc22.1); and «*if it's very pricey, I won't go for it, I won't break the bank*» (Int31; Inc31.1). This explains why some participants who engaged in unplanned purchases stated they were satisfied, believing they were «*not manipulated at all*» (Int7; Inc7.1) by FoMO appeals.

Whether it was confirmation or positive disconfirmation, cognitively satisfied participants were shown to regard their purchases as good personal investments, when they acquired expensive products offered in short supply, that eventually met or surpassed their expectations, as shown in some incidents: «*It was the last piece [...] I* ***invested my money*** *in a good bag that I really need*» (Int6; Inc6.1); «*I* ***made the right decision*** *even if it cost me a lot*» (Int22; Inc22.1); and «***it was worth*** *paying that amount of money for these shoes»* (Int24; Inc24.1). Moreover, in half of the incidents participants who were involved in rational buying decisions were found to regard their purchases eventually as fulfilling as illustrated by one participant: «*let's say* ***now I trusted***» (Int8; Inc8.2).

To add, discounts on essential items left cognitively satisfied participants fulfilled with their purchasing decision, because, for example, they no longer «*need to think about purchasing any socks in the future*» (Int39; Inc39.1). Despite the unplanned buying-decisions triggered by promotion appeal, a sense of accomplishment was left in few participants, as demonstrated by Int44: «*was a last-minute discount [...] very good bargain because I needed it [...] I've* ***made the right decision***» (Inc44.2).

Dissatisfaction or satisfaction with purchases made by participants were a result of how they thought and felt about their buying-decisions. Next section elaborates the study's findings where emotions felt after participants are discussed thoroughly.

5.6. Post-decision Emotional Responses

Emotional responses are feelings encountered by Fomsumers after their buying-decisions (Argan et al., 2018). In order to assess emotional responses resulting from purchase decision types stimulated by FoMO appeals, participants were asked about their feelings with the purchase they made, why they felt such emotions and if they feel the same way about the purchase presently. The study found that the emotions felt can be classified into negative emotions of sadness and positive emotions of joy (Table 10). Sadness is felt when experiencing an undesirable situation and is considered an independent negative emotion that categorizes a set of other negative emotions including disappointment, suffering, neglect, regret, guilt, and shame (Shaver et al., 1987). Joy, on the other hand, categorizes a group of positive emotions including happiness, excitement, pride, and cheerfulness emotions (Shaver et al., 1987). Participants were shown to feel more than one emotion at a time. Thus, emotions elicited in all incidents totaled 110, in which the majority of participants reported negative feelings and sadness (73 times) towards their purchases after conducting their buying-decision. Contrastingly, some participants associated positive feelings and joy (37 times) to their goods post buying.

Table 10: Emotional responses

Categories	nr.	%	Sub-categories	nr.	%
Sadness	73	66,4	Guilt & Shame	30	27,3
			Disappointment	30	27,3
			Regret	13	11,8
Joy	37	33,6	Happiness	20	18,2
			Love	8	7,3
			Pride	5	4,5
			Excitement	4	3,6
Total	**110**	100,0		110	100,0

5.6.1. *Negative Emotions - Sadness*

Negative emotions are the sum of the different emotions that customers experience to arrive at an overall judgment of dissatisfaction (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). Most incidents (73) show that participants reported to have experienced sadness following their buying-decisions, comprising of guilt

and shame, disappointment, and regret. Feelings of guilt and shame were found to be related and used interchangeably for they both are considered negatively valenced emotions that involve some sort of self-evaluation resulting from one's own choices (Tangney et al., 1996). Each slightly differ from one another, since guilt is a private experience represented by internally-generated pangs of conscience, while shame is more public emotion arising from exposure to disapproving others (Tangney et al., 2011).

Guilt and **shame** negative emotions were stated 30 times by participants who started blaming themselves for their unplanned purchases resulting from FoMO marketing appeals, specifically promotion appeal, as demonstrated in some incident descriptions: «*I felt like an* ***idiot****, I fell for the price rather than the product itself*» (Int26; Inc26.1); and «*I feel* ***stupid*** *sometimes as I go for the ones with the lower price tag. It is quick fix, but it is the wrong fix*» (Int33; Inc33.1). Many incidents related to participants who reported feeling **guilty** after impulsive and compulsive buying-decisions, to the extent where they started questioning their unnecessary purchases post-consumption: «*why did I buy it, if I'm not going to wear it?* » (Int28; Inc28.2). «***Self-guilt***» (Int44; Inc44.3) is a negative emotional response to buying-decisions that were viewed as unnecessary purchases: «***I felt really bad*** *afterwards [...] I* ***felt very guilty*** *because I bought stuff that I wouldn't need*» (Int38; Inc38.1); and «*I* ***feel*** *it's a* ***pity*** *that I have bought something I wouldn't use*» (Int30; Inc30.1). Financial concern and self-control failure were other sources causing guilt, as participants voiced guilt about overspending or buying something they should not have, as elaborated in many incidents: «*any expensive thing might* ***make me feel unhappy or guilty*** *afterwards*» (Int41; Inc41.2); «*it makes me* ***feel bad about myself*** *because I don't really like to waste money*» (Int41; Inc41.3); and «*for me to go above and beyond my budget just to buy swimsuit* ***was extremely stupid***» (Int27; Inc27.1). To add, participants who reported feeling **shame**, felt embarrassed and afraid of what others would think of the purchase made: «*I* ***felt*** *like I was* ***ashamed*** *to open it* ***in front of my colleagues they would say that I'm stupid***» (Int18; Inc18.1). Guilt and shame emotions gave participants the perception that it is in their control to avoid falling again in such situation, by taking the decision to «*invest more time into looking into other better stuff*» (Int40; Inc40.1), and «*not spend money until [they] try purchases properly*» (Int44; Inc44.3).

Disappointment and regret emotions have almost the same negative valence, yet each has a specific phenomenology (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). Disappointment is a negative emotion felt when the performance of a product is lower than prior expectations set, while regret is displeasure

with the buying-decision where consumers blame themselves that their choice was inferior to an alternative not chosen (Yi & Baumgartner, 2004). Impulse purchases were expressed to evoke **disappointment** (30 times), when products fall beyond one's expectations, either because the product purchased was not beneficial as expected, or due to the product's malfunction. Many incidents concern participants who got sad when the purchased products failed to meet their expectation: «*I was **disappointed** a little bit that I bought something that is not that nice. I thought it would be much nicer*» (Int12; Inc12.2); and «***so disappointed**, it shows something, and the actual is something else*» (Int43; Inc43.1). Other incidents were reported by participants who were filled with sorrow, when their hopes were not fulfilled as originally thought: «*I **feel disappointed**. I think I would wear them all, but I don't*» (Int11; Inc11.2). Moreover, some participants regarded their shopping experience as «*really **devastating***» (Int1; Inc1.1); when they ended up paying a relatively high price for their purchases «*I was **devastated** because I spent huge sum of money on some clothes I bought from [Brand name]* » (Int1; Inc1.1). Disappointed consumers were compelled to put the blame on other parties: «*she **lied to me** [...] I was disappointed and shocked after I tried it*» (Int15; Inc15.1); and «*the review was **not really accurate** about the product. It turned out to be really disappointing*» (Int25; Inc25.2). Accordingly, very few participants found a way to reduce their level of sorrow by giving away the products they were disappointed at: «*I tried it and it was horrible. I gave it away*» (Int50; Inc50.1).

Participants were found to encounter **regret** (13 times) when the outcome of the purchase proved to be inferior to the forgone alternatives. Some incidents relate to participants who were filled with remorse for not pursuing the alternative purchases: «*I think that I could have waited. Could have bought a different model that has better option [...] I often do careless decisions that I **regret later** [...] I always **have buyer's remorse***» (Int2; Inc2.1); and «*most of the time **I'm regretting** that [...] I could have bought lotions and oils from a store locally much cheaper and much better than that*» (Int23; Inc23.1). For others, regret was felt due to proceeding with the purchase despite having doubts: «*Deep inside, I kind of knew that it wasn't going to be a nice dress [...] I **did regret** getting it even if it was cheap*» (Int26; Inc26.1); and «*I knew that I would not like it. I **regretted** it, it was **very sad**. I could have waited to find something better [...] I would have spent a little bit more and got another one with a better quality and better color*» (Int34; Inc34.1).

It was shown that the participant's emotional response towards a buying-decision changes over time. In many purchasing situations, emotional valence changed from positive to negative over a

short period of time. The instant post-purchase positive emotions did not last for long, and got replaced with negative feelings of guilt, shame, disappointment, and regret after using the product, as stated by participants regarding some incidents, «*at first I was excited, then I went back home and realized I wasn't that excited [...] I felt* ***guilty*** *as I believe in the environment and I don't like fast fashion, so for me it would* ***feel heavy***» (Int19; Inc19.1); «***100% frustrated****, it made me happy at that time, but* ***later on I was honestly sad****. It was a failure, was a huge fail*» (Int55; Inc55.1); «*At first, I was very excited. I was very happy. I thought that I had something that nobody has in Egypt.* ***After some time****, my emotions went to a bit downhill, and I got very* ***disappointed***» (Int20; Inc20.1); and «*my intention going to the mall was to get a different color, but I ended up buying this bag [...] right after buying it, I felt it was a good bargain. But* ***now*** *I* ***regret*** *it*» (Int17; Inc17.1).

5.6.2. *Positive Emotions - Joy*

Positive emotions are the sum of multiple emotions that customers experience to arrive at an overall judgment of satisfaction (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). Joy was reported 37 times by participants after planned and unplanned decisions. Some purchasing situations elicit positive emotions, including happiness, love, pride, and excitement.

As indicated in Table 10, the feeling of **happiness** concentrates almost all incidents related to positive emotions (20 times). Happiness is a positive emotion that indicates frequent interest and joy (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). There were plenty of incidents related to participants who were **happy** due to product's high performance: «***I feel very happy*** *because they are good quality products that I wouldn't find anywhere here*» (Int39; Inc39.2); and «*I'm* ***happy*** *that I got it because it was different, it wasn't a color that I usually wear. I can use it in different places and at different times during the day*» (Int22; Inc22.1). Happiness followed unplanned consumption, when participants bought a rarely available item to be added to their possessions, as shown in Inc31: «***joy*** *that I bought myself a vintage piece»* (Int31). Promotion allowed participants to feel happy to the extent that they would want to «*come back to buy more, just to* ***seize the opportunity***» (Int16; Inc16.1).

Other incidents show that when desired purchases are consumed «*for the first time*» (Int3; Inc3.1), participants were reported to «*feel* ***good and very happy***» (Int3; Inc3.1), along with strong level of **excitement**: «*I'm* ***excited*** *going out with it*» (Int3; Inc3.1). Excitement is a positive feeling

regarded as thrilled and enthusiastic (Richins, 1997). Excitement was the least reported emotion (4 times) by participants. Promotion was found to be the only trigger that allowed participants to feel excitement towards their possessions, following unplanned purchases such as, «*specific stuff for men that never go on sale [...] I was* ***very excited***» (Int39; Inc39.1). Participants expressed both their **happiness and excitement** as most likely to follow an unplanned purchase, when consumers had something desirable to be added to their possessions: «*until now I'm very* ***content and satisfied*** *with the purchase I made. Buying stuff makes you* ***happy****. I'm* ***excited*** *to try the product*» (Int12; Inc12.1).

Love regards to a high level of fondness for products, where consumers become very sentimental towards their possessions post-purchasing (Baishya & Choudhury, 2022). Participants reported (8 times) that they **loved** their impulsive purchases when product's performance exceeded or met prior expectations, as expressed in few incidents «***I loved it so much***» (Int25; Inc25.1); and «*I* ***really liked*** *this one*» (Int41; Inc41.1). The study shows few incidents concerning participants who developed admiration towards the product purchased owing to psychological attachment held and product's functionality: «*I* ***love*** *this jumper; it represents so much to me. It kind of keeps me connected with my younger self*» (Int32; Inc32.1); «***I love*** *my [Brand name] watch. I couldn't go out without my [Brand name] watch*» (Int34; Inc34.3); and «*sticks for a long time. Actually,* ***I love*** *it*» (Int43; Inc43.2). For some, love could be noticed on facial expressions: «*I* ***love*** *it, when I wear it, it puts a smile on my face*» (Int9; Inc9.1).

Pride is a positive self-conscious emotion showing satisfaction from one's own achievements (Tracy & Robins, 2008). Participants showed more **pride** (5 times) towards their new purchases, when the item bought was found to attract attention and notice: «*have to admit, I* ***was happier when I actually wore it to my events***» (Int7; Inc7.1), as conspicuous products allowed participants to «*feel* ***confident and elegant***» (Int7; Inc7.1). Compliments given to the new belongings, accelerate the feeling of pride participants have towards their purchases: «*I got a few nice comments from people when they saw it [...] kind of* ***boosting one's confidence***» (Int21; Inc21.1). Acquisitions of desired products that were scarce or on promotion, made participants feel «***triumphant***» (Int13; Inc13.1); and gave them sense of «***accomplishment***» after engaging in impulse purchases (Int10; Inc10.1).

As a consequence of cognitions and emotions encountered after purchases made, participants engage in multiple acts affecting the seller. Next section discusses the negative and positive post-purchase behaviour of Fomsumers.

5.7. Post-decision Behavioural Responses

Behavioural responses are specific actions and physiological reactions when interacting with a brand (Brakus et al., 2009). To explore the behavioural outcomes of different post-decision cognitive and emotional states related to the purchase experience described by the participants, they were asked to classify their relationship with that brand or type of product reported. The interview also tried to explore whether participants took any actions after the purchase towards the brand or the seller, if they intended to repeat the purchase in the future, and if they were willing to recommend the seller. In addition, participants were also probed on their post-purchase decisions and actions to explore whether they would buy the same product again despite knowing that their friends did not like the purchases they made.

In each incident, participants reported several actions taken post-purchasing resulting from the cognitive and emotional responses towards their purchase. Thus, behavioural responses generated from all incidents accounted for 179 in total. The findings reveal that participants were split between ones who showed negative behavioural responses (88) and others who demonstrated positive behavioural responses (91). Participants who were satisfied with their buying-decisions, were shown to have the intention of repeating purchases from the same seller in the future and were motivated to engage in positive word-of-mouth referrals of the product or the seller. On the other side, dissatisfied participants with their purchases mentioned that they would refrain from making the same purchases henceforward and reported engaging in negative word-of-mouth referrals. Moreover, dissatisfied participants stated that they would become extra cautious with their decision-making process afterwards, and some even reported unfollowing influencers (Table 11).

Table 11: Behavioural responses

Categories	nr.	%	Sub-categories	nr.	%
Negative behavioural responses	88	49,2	No repurchase intention	36	20.1
			Negative word-of-mouth	35	19,6
			Cautious	13	7,3
			Unfollow influencers	4	2,2
Positive behavioural responses	91	50,8	Positive word-of-mouth	47	26,2
			Repurchase intention	44	24,6
Total	**179**	100,0		179	100,0

5.7.1. *Negative Behavioural Responses*

Results show that most participants who held negative emotions and cognitions following their purchasing decisions driven by FoMO triggers, also showed negative behavioural responses such as refraining from repeating purchases in the future (36), engaging in negative word-of-mouth (35), being extra cautious (13), and unfollowing influencers (4).

Multiple incidents (36) relate to dissatisfied participants who stated they had **no intention to repurchase** from the same seller in the future, despite new offerings or new versions provided: «*I **wouldn't consider buying again** from the same brand*» (Int43; Inc43.1); «*later [Brand name] announced that they created a new model, but for me it is over, **I am not buying again** from them*» (Int2; Inc2.2); and «*in fact there are a couple of versions that came out after the one I bought, and I'm **not thinking a bit of the new version***» (Int28; Inc28.2). Some participants reported to even consider «*looking for another brand*» (Int43; Inc43.1), for they reached a conclusion that if purchases are underperforming, other products offered by the same brand would have equally dissatisfying results: «*I don't think it makes any difference if I chose another item, the material itself they use is so bad*» (Int21; Inc21.2). In addition, impulse purchases led participants to avoid making similar purchases from the same brand or any other alternatives: «*next time, I would **hold back from making similar purchases** because of my current situation*» (Int35; Inc35.1); and «*this **particular product I would not buy again in the future, no way***» (Int15; Inc15.1). Interestingly, the study reveals that there were few incidents related to participants who had no intention to repurchase after being dissatisfied, yet «*end up falling for offers*» (Int19; Inc19.2), and other FoMO appeals.

Several incidents (35) were described by dissatisfied participants who engaged in negative word-of-mouth (WOM) post their impulse decisions. **Negative WOM referral** is the degree to which

customers complain and warn against an organization and its products or services (Swan & Oliver, 1989). It was found that guilty and disappointed participants with their purchasing choices would warn and «***tell everyone*** *about the product»* (Int46; Inc46.2), to impede other consumers from choosing the same brand or making the same purchases. Participants voiced they would «***not recommend*** *[Brand name] to others»* (Int15; Inc15.1), as they «*only recommend things bought and found up to expectation»* (Int5; Inc5.1) or believe would satisfy a need, as one interviewee states: «*why would I recommend a product I don't use? »* (Int19; Inc19.2). Some participants mentioned that they would only refer the brand to others if they became «*obsessed with the product»* (Int41; Inc41.3).

All participants who made impulse purchases stated they «*will be more* ***cautious*** *for sure»* (Int19; Inc19.2) with their future buying decision, ensuring they will not get triggered easily again by FoMO marketing appeals: *«I* ***wouldn't fall for a product just because it's on sale****»* (Int5; Inc5.1); nor make unplanned or impulsive purchases: *«At that moment, I said* ***I'm never going to purchase something up instantly****, without thinking about it, or without even using it first and trying it. I wouldn't buy something* ***impulsively****»* (Int15; Inc15.1). Participants were shown to reflect on their decision process, concluding that they *«****need to spend more time,*** *not be rushed, not go crazy»* (Int19; Inc19.1). Participants voiced having to think through and *«****search a bit more****»* (Int20; Inc20.1) for information and recommendations before hastily buying things, following their regret, disappointment, and guilt, as displayed in some incidents: *«I* ***have to think before buying anything impulsively****»* (Int36; Inc36.1); *«I'm now* ***more careful*** *on where I put my money»* (Int49; Inc49.1); and «*In fact, I would be* ***more cautious and ask for more reviews*** *and everything before buying again»* (Int50; Inc50.1).

Besides, few incidents relate to disappointed participants who lost faith in influencers when expectations were unmet, following their advice: *«I've tried before buying based on influencers recommendation, it* ***turned out so bad****»* (Int23; Inc23.1). As a consequence, participants showed rebellious behaviour, where they decided to **unfollow influencers** and their social media accounts, as the following quotes illustrate: *«I* ***unfollowed many influencers,*** *as they* ***lost credibility*** *and trustworthiness»* (Int15; Inc15.1); *«I used to watch bloggers, but I* ***unfollowed them. They are too fake*** *to be honest»* (Int23; Inc23.1); and *«I'm* ***not going to follow any bloggers or influencers about their review*** *on makeup again. I* ***don't trust*** *them»* (Int25; Inc25.2).

5.7.2. *Positive Behavioural Responses*

Satisfied participants who held positive feelings and thoughts towards their buying-decisions, engaged in positive behavioural responses in the form of positive word-of-mouth (WOM) referral (47 incidents) and repurchase intention (44 incidents). The findings identified two types of positive behavioural responses: those that result from positive experiences and those that come from negative experiences.

Positive WOM referral is the degree to which customers praise and recommend an organization and its products or services (Swan & Oliver, 1989). There were incidents concerning participants who engaged in **positive WOM referral** after being **satisfied** with their consumptions, where they referred the brand or the product to their social circle: «*I would definitely* ***recommend it to friends****»* (Int4; Inc4.1). Few participants showed they were very selective when it came to who they will give recommendation to, as demonstrated in descriptions of some incidents: «***only for good friends, I will give advice****»* (Int6; Inc6.1); and «*If it was competitive****, maybe I wouldn't be telling it to all people****»* (Int8; Inc8.2). A good justification would be due to the difficult requirements needed to attain the product or service: «*that's the trickier thing, because not all people follow up the way I follow up, because it takes a lot of effort, and energy»* (Int8; Inc8.2). To add, some incidents relate to participants who have shown that when satisfied, they start promoting the brand informally to everyone they know, «*yeah! The thing is when I like a product, I* ***keep recommending it to everyone****. It's a thing I have, I'm* ***like salesperson****, I keep* ***sending it to everyone*** *that they have to buy this Perfume»* (Int41; Inc41.1). Brand likability was shown to encourage satisfied participants to refer the brand «*I like their collection, so I* ***would definitely recommend their products to others****»* (Int10; Inc10.1); and «*I* ***would recommend*** *it because it's very all natural ingredients, it's a very good brand»* (Int12; Inc12.1).

Brand likability was also found to engage **dissatisfied** participants in positive WOM referrals. Disappointed participants demonstrated a willingness to find excuses for the poor items received from the brand and would still refer the brand itself to others, as shown in a few incidents: «*it doesn't look nice. It looks very bad. I was disappointed [...] I would not recommend the night shirt,* ***but the brand yeah, because the brand itself is a known brand*** *and I usually like it, but this specific dress was not alright»* (Int12; Inc12.2); and «*it makes me look fat and it's not giving me the body shape that I wanted [...] I wouldn't recommend this set, but* ***of course I would recommend*** *[Brand name]. I*

love [Brand name] » (Int28; Inc28.1). Positive beliefs about a specific brand drawn from prior personal experience, allowed some participants to continue referring the brand despite their regret and guilt felt, «*Yes, **I would recommend** because the other dresses that I got were actually good, so this is not the theme»* (Int26; Inc26.1). Moreover, other participants voiced they would continue to recommend the same product or seller, despite their dissatisfaction with their purchase decisions, only if they found it to be relevant for others: «*if **someone needs** them, they should go ahead and buy one for themselves»* (Int1; Inc1.1); «*I would recommend the purchase or the [Brand name] watch for people **who actually do sports**»* (Int28; Inc28.2); and «*if they have the **purchasing power** go ahead. They are just meant to be sold for the ones who can afford»* (Int27; Inc27.1).

Repurchase intention refers to one's inclination to repurchase in the future (Oliver, 1980). As expected, there were numerous incidents related to participants who expressed their **intention to repurchase** due to being extremely **satisfied** with their purchases: «*I will **repeat purchases** in the future from the same brand. I will do it all over again»* (Int4; Inc4.1); «***repeat purchase in the future** as I'm not disappointed by the quality, the use, and the design**. I'm happy** whenever I wear the [Brand name] bag»* (Int7; Inc7.1); and «*I would **buy again right now**»* (Int39; Inc39.1). Indeed, some satisfied participants have mentioned that they actually did repeat similar purchases: «*I tried it and I **decided to get more**»* (Int13; Inc13.1); and «*actually **went back the next day** and I bought stuff from this exact shop»* (Int39; Inc39.2). Furthermore, brand likability encouraged happy participants to repeat purchases, as show in some incidents: «*I knew I had to buy it although I have one at home, I **have to buy an extra one**. I have this habit of **sticking to the things I like**»* (Int41; Inc41.1).

Likability of the brand or previous positive experience with the store, allowed participants to give the seller another chance, despite being **dissatisfied** with a specific buying situation «*I would **buy again from the same store**, because it was [Brand name], it **was a good store**, but I **wouldn't buy that kind of product again**»* (Int19; Inc19.1); and «*I **could buy from the same brand** like body splashes, body creams, but not the aromatherapy products*» (Int23; Inc23.1). The study also found that compulsive buyers would continue to repeat similar purchases, despite encountering negative shopping situations. Compulsive buyers were found to admit «*having a problem»* (Int27; Inc27.2), where they tend always to convince themselves that «*maybe this time is **different**»* (Int46; Inc46.2), or that they «*can repeat similar purchases but with **less volume**»* (Int49; Inc49.1) yet end up «*regretting buying **too many** of the same item»* (Int49; Inc49.1).

Few impulsive buyers also stated they were vulnerable to FoMO appeals, specifically promotion appeals. Although some impulsive participants reported negative cognitive and emotional post-purchasing responses, there was a high probability of repeating similar purchases when being exposed to price reduction offers, as described by participants: «*Probably because that was an* ***amazing discount*** *it was like 80%»* (Int32 Inc32.2); and «*if I pass by exactly the same store and* ***see a sale sign****, I would still go buy it»* (Int33 Inc33.1).

In the next section, results are analyzed more deeply, taking into consideration the psychographic and behavioural aspects of Fomsumers manifested in the way they react to FoMO triggers, the type of buying behaviour they show, and the post-purchase cognitions, emotions, and behaviours encountered (Assael, 2005; Sandy et al., 2013).

The following sections discuss patterns and behaviours of the Fomsumers through elaborating on participants different buying decisions and post-purchase responses. Causes and consequences of each behavioural type are then analyzed.

5.8. Fomsumer Behaviour Patterns And Characteristics

Based on the findings and connections between the different dimensions of the Fomsumer response model, participants were shown to engage in different behavioural responses. Fomsumers had distinct responses to their rational or irrational buying decisions made and whether they regarded their purchases as negative or positive incidents. The study segmented similar behavioural responses into four main typologies in terms of degree of referral and degree of repurchase intention (Figure 7). Segmentation is identifying subgroups based on similar behaviour and patterns shared to eventually construct different typologies (Slater, 1996). Consumer typologies are defined as grouping different types of consumer personalities that share common characteristics and purchasing behaviour (Barnes et al., 2007). Segmenting consumer groups and developing consumer typologies have been regarded as key in comprehending consumer behaviour (Barnes et al., 2007).

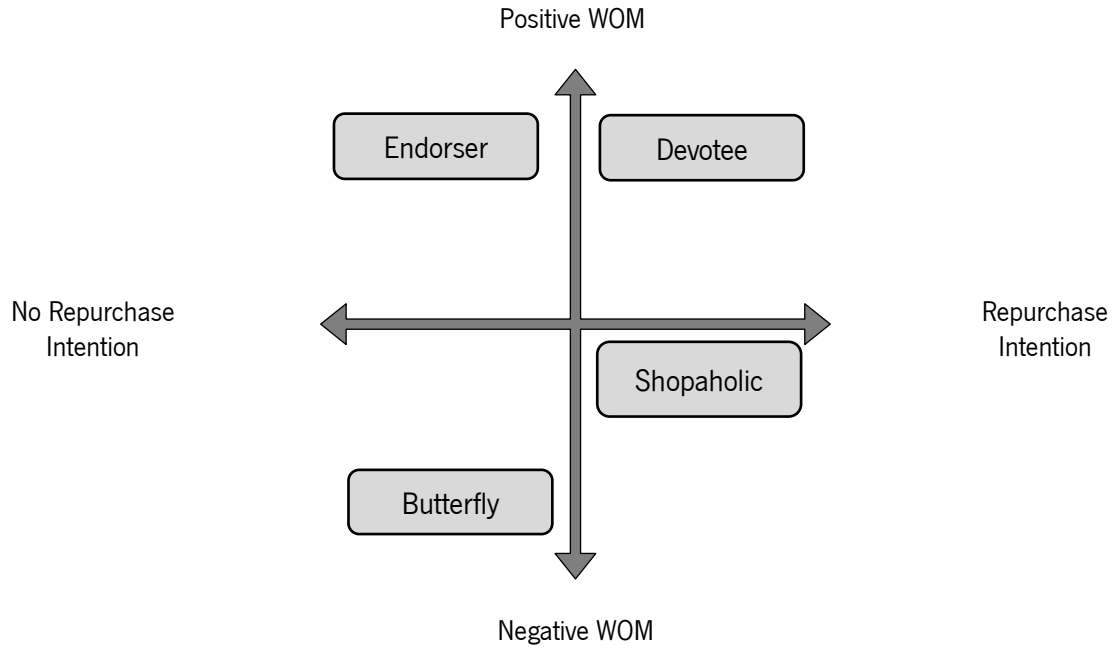


Figure 7. Fomsumer Typology

Next, the study presents a summary of the different characteristics of Fomsumer typologies in regard to the type of consumption associated with each particular type, which FoMO appeal is more effective in triggering impulse decisions, decision types involved, and cognitive, emotional, and behavioural post-purchase responses of each architype.

5.8.1. *The Butterfly*

Butterfly customer was first introduced by O'Dell and Pajunen (1997), arguing that such customers easily switch from one brand to another, and thus have a direct negative impact on post-purchase behaviour (Reinartz & Kumar, 2002). Butterfly Fomsumers showed complete negative behavioural responses towards brands due to their negative post-purchase cognitions (dissatisfaction) and emotions (sadness) experienced. Butterfly Fomsumers would refrain from repeating similar purchases and engage in negative referral when being exposed to triggers that induce impulse purchases.

This architype is very challenging for it poses a long-term threat on brands when being prompted to make decisions based on FoMO appeals. As a result of unmet expectations and nonessential purchases, Butterfly Fomsumers doubt the credibility of their impulse judgements and blame themselves for not thinking their buying decisions through, experience negative disconfirmation when expectations are lower than reality, encounter psychological and financial distress when their spending surpass their income, all of which cause negative post-purchase cognition. Butterfly Fomsumers would also feel negative emotions like disappointment, guilt, shame, and regret post their impulse buying decisions triggered by FoMO appeals. Both negative cognitions and emotions experienced post unplanned purchases encouraged by FoMO appeals would cause Butterfly Fomsumers to lower their repurchase intentions towards brands and engage in negative referral. The following excerpt clarifies the Butterfly's negative post buying behaviour towards brands.

«*I found it quite beautiful and* ***unique****, so I decided to buy it [...] the fact that I knew that I probably wouldn't find something like it again very soon unless I came back to this exact place and it is also very unlikely to come back [...] after I bought the product I was very happy and I felt like I got a good deal, then afterwards call it* ***disappointment*** *[...] No, I* ***wouldn't recommend*** *it as it's not a day-to-day item and next time, I would* ***hold back from making similar purchases*** *because of my current situation****»*** **(Int35; Inc35.1).**

Butterfly Fomsumers behaviour reinforce the literature proposal debating that impulse purchases encouraged by FoMO-induced appeals by marketers would generate instant satisfaction, yet cause negative cognitive, emotional, and behavioural post-purchase responses in the long-run (Hodkinson, 2019; Kang, Son, et al., 2019). Cognitive dissonance theory proposed by (Festinger, 1957) and regret theory proposed by (Bell, 1982) serve as great arguments in comprehending the negative behavioural responses of Butterfly Fomsumers. Butterflies would have to cope with the negative thoughts and emotions encountered post their purchasing decisions when coming to realization of the alluring features accompanying the rejected alternatives. Thus, Butterfly Fomsumers would quit engaging with the current brand and look for other brands to purchase from and refer their products to friends and family. The majority of Fomsumers were shown to be Butterfly, accounting to 36 percent of the total participants.

5.8.2. *The Devotee*

A Devotee is someone who develops a strong positive relationship with the brand based on love and admiration (Tsiotsou & Goldsmith, 2017). Devotees would forgive the brand for any mistake and would continue to defend the brand against all odds (Tsiotsou & Goldsmith, 2017) by speaking positively about the brand (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Brand devotion, also referred to as brand love, results in "greater brand repurchase intention, engagement of positive WOM referral, willingness to pay a higher price, and resistance to negative information" (Batra et al., 2012, p. 7).

All Devoted Fomsumers are shown to engage in positive behavioural responses when being exposed to FoMO-induced appeals. Devotees are split according to the post-purchase cognitions and emotions experienced, into the happy Devotee, the unhappy Devotee, and the contended Devotee (Table 12).

Happy Devotee Fomsumers are more inclined to make similar purchases from the same seller and refer the brand to friends, family and close circle after experiencing positive cognitions (satisfaction) and emotions (joy) with unplanned purchases motivated by FoMO appeals. A happy Devoted Fomsumer would become satisfied from rational buying-decisions that turned into a good personal or financial investment. Also, positive cognition occurs when engaging in impulsive and compulsive buying-decisions as a response to FoMO-induced appeals, and eventually the unplanned acquisitions turn out a good deal. Satisfaction continues to be encountered by happy Devoted Fomsumers when facilitating decision-making process or acquiring a desired product with better conditions due to responding to FoMO-appeal triggers, specifically promotion. These positive behavioural responses of happy Devoted Fomsumers to irrational purchasing decisions result from the confirmation achieved upon discovering that the product's performance met previously defined expectations. Confirmation generates positive emotions such as pride, where Fomsumers praise themselves for their choices. Excitement is felt only in the case of positive disconfirmation, since Fomsumers become thrilled to find products exceeding expectations. Both confirmation and positive disconfirmation result in happiness and develop feelings of love towards the brand after consumption, thus creating happier Devoted Fomsumers.

Contended Devoted Fomsumer would feel positive emotions yet doubt the credibility of impulsive and compulsive decisions taken, thinking about the better version that could have been bought instead, the wrong timing for purchases, or the excessive quantities of the same exact product.

Another form of negative cognition held in parallel with feeling joy, is financial distress caused by overspending. Contended Devotee Fomsumers will still engage in positive WOM referrals and repeat purchases despite the cognitive evaluation of the purchase being negative (dissatisfaction) as long as their emotions are positive (joy), indicating that positive emotions have a more substantial impact on consumer behavioural responses than negative cognitions.

Unhappy Devoted Fomsumer could hold both negative cognitions (dissatisfaction) and emotions (sadness) because of the irrational buying-decisions made, s/he will continue to recommend the brand and repeat purchases in the future, when there is a strong relationship with the brand. An unhappy Devoted Fomsumer who made irrational decisions would find excuses for the negative emotions caused by the underperforming purchase in case of impulsive purchases, and nonessential products in case of compulsive purchases. Unhappy Devotees would give the brand another chance post dissatisfying irrational purchases, due to the previous good history with the brand. Indeed, known brands were found to lessen negative feelings regarding mistakes in choices (Herman, 2000c). Sometimes, an unhappy Devotee would repeat purchases from the same seller but would refrain from buying similar products. The following excerpt clarifies the behavioural responses of an irrational decision made by an unhappy Devotee who experienced negative cognitions and emotions post-purchasing:

«*I believe I* ***shouldn't have gotten*** *the bag; I actually wore it once and it* ***wasn't cheap*** *[...] I feel more of* ***influenced and stupid*** *[...] yet, I* ***would continue to recommend and repeat purchase from the brand****, I mean honestly [Brand name] has really good designs»* **(Int40; Inc40.2).**

Unhappy Devotee's positive behaviour, despite negative cognitions undergone, could be explained by brand forgiveness theory, where consumers transform negative cognitions and emotions held towards more positive cognitions, emotions, and behaviours (McCullough, 2000). This architype is novel and contradicts literature proposal arguing the ineffective long-term consequences of FoMO-induced appeals on brands, for unhappy Devotees were found to continue showing positive referral and repurchase intentions in spite of negative cognitions experienced post impulse buying triggered by FoMO appeals. Unhappy Devotees summed up to 19 percent of the total participants. Happy

Devotees accounted to 24 percent, while contended Devotees were very few amounting to only six percent.

5.8.3. *The Endorser*

Endorser Fomsumer is a person who gives a written or spoken recommendation of a specific product or brand to others (Rodriguez, 2008). Due to negative cognitions (dissatisfaction) and emotions (sadness) encountered post impulse purchases, the Endorser Fomsumer would not repeat purchases, yet would be considerate enough to engage in positive WOM referral to others who might regard the purchase as beneficial.

Promotion appeal would motivate the Endorser to make impulse decisions when finding an opportunity to save money, resulting in financial stress, or doubting the credibility of judgement regarding such decision, blaming oneself for buying unnecessary acquisitions, and consequently raising feelings of regret, guilt, and shame. Other times the Endorser would be dissatisfied for making impulse purchases triggered by trend appeal, that result in unmet expectations, causing disappointment. As an outcome to the negative cognitions and emotions experienced, the Endorser would refrain from repeating similar purchases. However, the Endorser would still show some positive behavioural responses, in the form of speaking positively about the product and recommending it to those who they believe might need such acquisition. The following excerpt explains the Endorser behavioural responses caused by negative cognitions and emotions:

«*I am **r**egretting the decision I made regarding the air pods [...] It was a trend, usually I buy things because I like how they look [...] I bought it **immediately** as it had like it 5% discount [...] if they will make good use of it, **yes, I can recommend** it. If they workout, it would be helpful [yet] **I wouldn't buy again new versions**»* **(Int54; Inc54.1).**

Endorser's behaviour supports the literature proposal arguing that FoMO-induced appeals are short-time effective in terms of triggering impulse decisions, but ineffective in terms of the long-term negative consequences it has on brand's life-time value (Hodkinson, 2019; Kang, Son, et al., 2019). Endorsers would refrain from repeating similar purchases post impulse decisions prompted by promotion and trend appeals. Despite of undergoing negative cognitions and emotions, it is in

endorser's nature to advocate and refer dissatisfying acquisitions to others if deemed essential to recipients. Hence, promotion and trend appeal were found to negatively affect repurchase intention of Fomsumers in the long run yet allow few Fomsumers to engage in positive referral. Endorsers were considered very few, accounting to eight percent of the total sample studied of Fomsumers.

5.8.4. *The Shopaholic*

Shopaholic buyers experience overpowering instant desire to consume products and services in an unreasonable and uncontrollable manner, where they are unable to resist temptations (Sharma et al., 2021). Shopaholics were found to lose interest of their purchases once acquired (Tyagi & Shyam, 2019). Shopaholic Fomsumers would attempt to repurchase from the same brand in the future yet would not intend to refer acquired products. Shopaholic Fomsumers would be triggered to buy instantly when being exposed to promotion and scarcity appeals despite prior negative cognitive (dissatisfaction) and emotional (sadness) experience encountered post unplanned decisions encouraged by FoMO-appeals.

Shopaholics are used to finding their purchases nonessential or underperforming post their impulse or compulsive buying, and hence would not recommend products that are not regarded as useful or of good quality. Yet, Shopaholic Fomsumers would continue to repurchase from the same brand, fearing missing out on great promotional deals or acquisition of scarce items. The following excerpt represents the typical Shopaholic post-purchase behaviour:

«*I realize I don't use it [...] There's always buy one get one free discount [...] I feel stupid, it's a waste of money [...] I* ***don't feel that I need it so I wouldn't recommend*** *[...]* ***every time I tell myself that maybe this time is different»*** **(Int46; Inc46.2)**

This architype challenges the suggested literature proposal arguing that FoMO appeals would negatively affect the long-term behavioural responses towards brands. Shopaholics have the potential to turn into Devotees if products and services meet or exceed their expectations. Self-control theory proposed by (Keinan & Kivetz, 2008) is considered a trait-based theory that could be significant in understanding the potential outcomes of Shopaholic's response to FoMO appeals. Shopaholic Fomsumers would continue to respond to stimuli rather than rejecting them, despite negative post-

purchase cognitions and emotions experienced. Thus, although Shopaholics would not refer unnecessary and underperforming products acquired, they would continue to repeat similar purchases in the future. Shopaholics were very few in our sample, accounting to seven percent of the total Fomsumers studied.

To conclude, the study shows that Fomsumers with same dissatisfaction level could have dissimilar behavioural responses based on differences in personalities and characteristics (Table 12). Although the majority of Fomsumers experience negative cognitions and emotions post impulse decisions triggered by FoMO appeals, only Butterflies (36%) would show negative behavioural post-purchase responses. Butterfly Fomsumers is considered the only typology that would pose a threat on brands since they would refrain from repeating similar purchases and engage in negative referral. Other typologies, as endorsers (8%), would still refer the brand to others despite their dissatisfaction and sadness with the products bought, if they believe the item would be beneficial for others. Shopaholics (7%) as well would continue to repeat similar purchases despite negative post-purchase cognitions and emotions experienced.

The most frequent post-purchase behaviour to irrational buying decisions encouraged by FoMO appeals was shown to be positive, which contradicts existing literature proposal arguing the negative behavioural consequences of Fomsumers on brands. Devotees (49%) were shown to engage in positive post-purchase behaviour where they would continue to repeat similar purchases in the future from the same brand and engage in positive referral regardless of whether their impulse purchasing decisions were satisfying or dissatisfying.

Table 12: Fomsumers' characteristics

Representation in the sample	**Butterfly** 36%	**Devotee**			**Endorser** 8%	**Shopaholic** 7%
		Happy 24%	Unhappy 19%	Contented 6%		
FoMO Appeals	Promotion / Trend/ Scarcity	Promotion /Trend/ Scarcity	Promotion / Trend/ Scarcity	Promotion/ Scarcity	Promotion/ trend	Promotion/ Scarcity
Purchase decision type	Imp/ Comp/ Conformity/ Rational	Imp/ Comp/ Rational	Imp/ Comp/ Conformity/ Rational	Imp/ Comp	Imp/ Comp	Imp/ Comp
Post-decision cognitive responses	Dis	Sat	Dis	Dis	Dis	Dis
Post-decision emotional responses	Sadness	Joy	Sadness	Joy	Sadness	Sadness
Post-decision behavioural responses	Rep (no) Referral (negative)	Rep (yes) Referral (positive)	Rep (yes) Referral (positive)	Rep (yes) Referral (positive)	Rep (no) Referral (positive)	Rep (yes) Referral (no)

Notes.* **Dis=Dissatisfaction. Sat=Satisfaction. Imp=Impulsive. Comp=Compulsive. Rep=Repurchase.**

Next, the study discusses the findings, the contribution of the research and how it advances marketing and consumer behaviour theory and practice. The discussion compares prior literature with existing findings to have a profound understanding of cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses to FoMO-induced appeals.

6. Discussion

The discussion gives an overview to understand the importance of Fomsumer buying behaviour in today's competitive environment. This study extends prior studies by exploring Fomsumers' post-purchase cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses induced by FoMO appeals. Counting on a qualitative approach, semi-structured interviews using Critical Incident Technique were conducted with 57 participants to collect thoughts and feelings on a particular incident experienced. Findings show that negative incidents are associated with post-purchase dissatisfaction, while positive incidents are associated with post-purchase satisfaction. The Fomsumer's satisfaction was shown to be determined by the cognitive and emotional post-decision assessments as previously argued in literature (Argan et al., 2018). The analysis led to the development of a conceptual FoMO response model (Figure 6) demonstrating the profound effect that FoMO appeals have on Fomsumer's buying decisions and the negative cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses resulting from such decisions. Besides, the study has segmented similar behavioural responses and developed four different typologies of Fomsumers (Figure 7) in terms of degree of referral and degree of repurchase intention. Moreover, all research propositions were verified and are further discussed next. The first research proposition posited that:

RP1. Marketing's appeals such as scarcity, trend, and promotion, influence consumers to be more prone to unplanned buying behaviour as impulse, compulsive, and conformity purchases.

Results show that promotion, scarcity, and trend are considered prominent FoMO marketing appeals that induce Fomsumers to make irrational buying behaviour. Promotion appeal was shown to be the most effective marketing strategy in triggering FoMO in Fomsumers, compared to scarcity and trend appeal, as well as the most effective trigger to generate impulse behaviour. This is demonstrated by the price discount's effect in alluring consumers to making immediate purchases and feeling short-term excitement with their unplanned buying decisions. The findings are in accordance with former studies confirming the great influence promotion has on impulsive behaviour (Coley & Burgess, 2003; Liao et al., 2009; Shi et al., 2005), for both online and offline shoppers (Xu & Huang, 2014). Moreover, in keeping with (Sinha & Smith, 2000) findings, price reduction was reported to be the most valuable promotional tool. Price reduction seems to have had higher

effectiveness than BOGOF in inducing FoMO. The reason could be because of the flexibility price reductions give to consumers to purchase the exact quantity of a product they need, while BOGOF promotions require customers to purchase multiples of a product.

Trend, as an appeal, comes after promotion in having a strong effect in inducing FoMO, where Fomsumers would be prompted to make buying decisions based on peer pressure from friends, family members, and social media influencers. Findings support Hodkinson (2019), who declared that consumers were influenced more by their friends and family because close circles are regarded more trustworthy than influencers. To add, scarcity appeal triggers FoMO through limited time and product availability, where efforts need to be exerted to obtain unique goods (Brock, 1968). Consistent with literature, limited-time scarcity and limited-quantity scarcity were found to have profound effect on Fomsumer's desire to own products (W. E. Jang et al., 2015). Also, analysis demonstrates that limited availability scarcity has a greater influence on Fomsumers who desire unique products, than limited time scarcity. Scarcity appeal was found to motivate Fomsumers who desire to stand out by purchasing inconspicuous products over conspicuous ones. The finding contradicts W.E. Jang et al. (2015) conclusion, arguing that scarcity messages would not trigger Fomsumers to buy inconspicuous items due to their poor ability to signal uniqueness. Their argument was that for products that are inconspicuous and not easily noticeable by others, the symbolic value may be less clear, and accordingly less desirable (W. E. Jang et al., 2015). Thus, scarcity message used for an inconspicuous item may not effectively signal uniqueness. Moreover, when combined with time pressure, promotion was shown to have a stronger effect in encouraging Fomsumers to make purchases. If a promotion is only available for a limited time, Fomsumers may feel that they need to take advantage of the offer before it expires. These findings oppose prior literature arguing that consumers valued products more and perceived goods as unique, when promotional offers limit the availability of products, compared to a given period of time (W. E. Jang et al., 2015). The scholars' defence is that limited availability transmits exclusivity that can make the product even more desirable (W. E. Jang et al., 2015). In addition, Fomsumers may feel that they need to act quickly to secure the product before it is no longer available (W. E. Jang et al., 2015).

Discoveries also support existing literature arguing that FoMO appeals lead to unplanned behaviour with the majority of respondents reporting having gone through impulsive, compulsive and conformity buying (Argan et al., 2018; Aydin et al., 2019; Çelik et al., 2019; Hodkinson, 2019; Mcdermott, 2017). Impulsive decisions were the most reported type of purchases made by

Fomsumers when exposed to FoMO appeals. Impulsive decisions were shown to lean more towards irrationality, for they often involve a high level of excitement, as Rook (1987) argued before. As previously debated by scholars, FoMO marketing appeals were shown to trigger impulse decisions by creating a sudden, powerful and persistent desire to buy something instantly (Dittmar & Drury, 2000; Liao et al., 2009; Rook, 1987; Scheinbaum et al., 2020; Stern, 1962). Compulsive behaviour was highly reported as a form of defense mechanism, where Fomsumers would make purchases in abundance to guarantee the acquisition of scarce products or desired items (Dittmar et al., 2007). Conformity consumption has been shown to be triggered through trend appeals, since purchases were highly desired to conform with the trend. This is because Fomsumers who were high in conformity, imitated purchases made by their close circles and followed reference groups so they could fit in. The outcome is in line with previous studies (Boush et al., 1993; Burnkrant & Cousineau, 1975; Kang, Cui, et al., 2019; Kang & Ma, 2020; Lascu & Zinkhan, 1999; J. K. Park & Feinberg, 2010; van Herpen et al., 2009). Unlike rational decisions, conformity consumption was guided by Fomsumer's emotions more than their cognitions. The study demonstrates that seldom decisions were rational when being exposed to FoMO marketing appeals and that the very few Fomsumers who made rational buying decisions were satisfied with their purchases.

The study also proposed that:

RP2. FoMO-induced consumption generates negative post-purchase cognitions like distress, doubting credibility of judgement and dissatisfaction.

RP3. FoMO-induced consumption generates negative post-purchase emotions like regret, disappointment, and guilt.

The most common post-purchase cognitions and emotions held by the studied Fomsumers towards unplanned buying were negative, in accordance with what was predicted. Instead of lingering to evaluate the utilitarian aspects of their purchases thoroughly, many Fomsumers rushed into making impulsive buying-decisions that failed to meet their expectations or were regarded as nonessentials. Subsequently, Fomsumers encountered negative feelings and thoughts that translated into negative post-purchase behaviours, negatively affecting brands. Dissatisfied Fomsumers resulted in negative emotions, such as disappointment, regret, guilt, and shame that were considered damaging for companies. When evaluating their purchase, irrational Fomsumers realized that they would have been better off if they had decided for a different product.

However, findings indicate that the unplanned and irrational decisions triggered by FoMO appeals were displayed to generate instant positive cognitive and emotional responses, as debated before (Hodkinson, 2019; Kang, Son, et al., 2019). Impulse buying decisions triggered by promotion appeal, for instance, were shown to generate short-term positive cognitions and emotions post buying, such as satisfaction, happiness, excitement, pride, and love that comes from the actuality of attaining the product at a monetary tempting value. Findings confirm prior literature arguments stating that price cut, and promotions have a short-term positive effect on consumer purchase intentions and actual buying behaviour (Dhar & Hoch, 1996; Mukhopadhyay & Johar, 2007). Yet, after the instant positive responses, Fomsumers showed to be dominated by post-purchase negative cognitions and emotions.

Accordingly, dissatisfied Fomsumers, decided to refrain from repeating purchases in the future of the same seller and engaged in negative referral, advising others not to buy the same product. Also, some dissatisfied Fomsumers unfollowed influencers because they believed they were fake and untrustworthy. Findings are in accordance with prior literature discussing the negative effect irrational decisions have on brands in terms of repurchase intentions, referral, and general attitude towards the brand (Balakrishnan et al., 2020; Tzeng & Shiu, 2019). FoMO was argued to pose a threat on brands, given that it decreases valuation of and intention to repeat a purchase or engage in referral (Hayran et al., 2020).

Regarding Fomsumers' behavioural responses, the study suggested that:

RP4. Negative post-purchase cognition like dissatisfaction and doubting the credibility of judgement cause negative behavioural responses, such as lower re-purchase intentions and negative word-of-mouth.

RP5. Negative post-purchase emotions like regret and disappointment cause negative behavioural responses, such as lower re-purchase intentions and negative word-of-mouth.

Dissatisfied Fomsumers did not necessarily exhibit similar behavioural responses as Fomsumers differed in their characteristics and were thus segmented into four types: Butterflies, Devotees, Endorsers, and Shopaholics. Butterfly Fomsumers accounting to 36% of the total

participants studied, are very challenging for their post-purchase behaviour towards FoMO appeals pose a huge threat on brands. Butterflies would refrain from repeating similar purchases in the future and would engage in negative referral, confirming research literature proposed. However, Devotees and Shopaholics Fomsumers showed positive behavioural responses despite the negative cognitions and emotions encountered post their irrational decisions prompted by FoMO marketing appeals. Endorsers (8%), unhappy Devotee (19%), and contended Devotees (6%) would continue to refer the brand to others despite the dissatisfaction and sadness experienced with their buying decisions. Shopaholics (7%), unhappy Devotees (19%), and contended Devotees (6%) would resume purchasing again in the future from the same brand despite their negative post-purchase cognitions and emotions encountered. The positive post-purchase behaviour exhibited by Devotees would be explained by the good perception they have towards the brands. Due to their positive past experiences with the brand, devotees are likely to give the brand another opportunity even after making irrational purchases that left them dissatisfied. Butterflies who are addicted to shopping are likely to repeatedly buy from the same brand out of fear of missing out on exceptional promotional offers or acquiring scarce products. These typologies are inconsistent with prior literature debating the possible disadvantages irrational decisions have on brands (Balakrishnan et al., 2020; Hodkinson, 2019; Jhamb et al., 2020).

To conclude, the negative side of FoMO appeals have been concluded to gain more prominence, as FoMO appeals have been shown to lead eventually to negative cognitive, emotional, and behavioural post-purchase responses. Findings confirm prior literature emphasizing the overall negative impact FoMO appeals have on Fomsumers (Hodkinson, 2019).

Next, conclusion will be drawn regarding the main purpose and findings of the study. Afterwards, demonstration of how the study benefits both academics and partitioners will be displayed. Then, information regarding identified limitations of the research is provided followed by suggestions for future research studies to pursue.

7. Conclusions, limitations, and future research

7.1. Conclusions

The purpose of this qualitative study was to further the knowledge of how the prevalent FoMO phenomenon affects consumers' cognitive, emotional, and behavioural post-purchase responses. Marketers have exploited FoMO to their benefit and intended to make use of FoMO appeals in their marketing and advertising campaigns to trigger purchasing intentions of consumers (Argan et al., 2018) and increase sales revenue (Hodkinson, 2019). However, FoMO appeals have been argued to result in negative consequences, which is at odds with the companies' strategic goal of promoting long-term relationships with their customers (Hodkinson, 2019). Literature is scarce in the evaluation of the effects of FoMO marketing appeals, not only on the decision process and different consumption contexts, but also on the cognitions, emotions, and behaviours experienced afterwards by the Fomsumers (Hayran et al., 2016; Hodkinson, 2019). Thus, the study aimed to better understand FoMO and the Fomsumers' behaviour by answering the research question: *What are Fomsumers' post-purchase cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses to purchase decisions driven by FoMO appeals?*

Through qualitative CIT method, the study was able to provide insight into the Fomsumer's decision process and, accordingly, developed a framework to better explain the Fomsumer response mechanism (Figure 6). The findings inferred that FoMO affects both conspicuous and inconspicuous consumption. Also, the study revealed that almost all irrational Fomsumers are displayed to make impulsive, compulsive, and conformity buying-decisions. Promotion appeal was the most effective trigger to induce FoMO in irrational buying decisions, followed by trend appeal where Fomsumers felt the pressure to act in a certain way influenced by peer pressures generated through friends, family members, and influencers on social media. Scarcity, in the form of limited time and limited supply, was the marketing appeal that least incited unplanned purchases in irrational Fomsumers. Hence, Fomsumers are shown to be inclined to make unplanned purchases induced by promotion, trend, and scarcity appeals.

Fomsumers were found to either hold negative or positive post-purchase cognitions and emotions towards irrational decisions induced by FoMO appeals. Negative post-purchase cognitions and emotions were reported in higher frequencies than positive post-purchase cognitions and emotions. As a result of irrational buying decisions induced by FoMO appeals, dissatisfied Fomsumers began to doubt the credibility of their judgement post acquiring their irrational possessions, experienced negative disconfirmation, and financial and psychological distress. Fomsumers, then, would feel negative emotions, such as regret, disappointment, guilt, and shame resulting from unmet expectations and nonessential purchases.

The study proposed a Fomsumer typology (Figure 7) based on different characteristics, consumption patterns, and post-purchase responses of Fomsumers. The study found that high number of Fomsumers would walk away due to their dissatisfaction and sadness felt post their purchases. This explains why they are referred to as Butterflies, for they would search for other competitors and would not intend to repurchase from the same brand nor refer their products to friends, family members, or even acquaintances on social media platforms. In addition, despite the negative post-purchase cognitions and emotions experienced with irrational purchases, a large number of Fomsumers would still show positive behavioural responses towards FoMO appeals. Few would continue to refer and speak positively about the brand as Endorsers and Devotees. Others would continue to repurchase from the same exact brand as Shopaholics and Devotees. Devotees would repeat similar purchases because they tend to forgive the brand out of strong affection held towards it. Shopaholics, on the other hand, would show positive post-purchase behaviour towards the brand due to the lack of self-control they have been identified with.

7.2. Contributions to theory, practice and policy-making

FoMO is a growing area of interest for both academics and practitioners (Zhang et al., 2020). Understanding the effects of FoMO on consumer behaviour and well-being is important (Przybylski et al., 2013) and how new consumer experiences are shaped by social media (Argan et al., 2018). Thus, by understanding the mechanism, response, and consequences of consumers towards FoMO

appeal, the study academically contributes to literature on FoMO and consumer behaviour (Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018).

The findings of this study suggest that companies can improve the effectiveness of FoMO as a purchase trigger (Hodkinson, 2019), by utilizing promotion and scarcity appeals combined to create a sense of urgency, and exclusivity, along with relying on the power of friends and family members have over influencers in transmitting FoMO due to their trust, familiarity, and long-lasting impact associated with social relationship. Besides the study considers the general well-being by helping consumers to deal with such experiences, perhaps by altering their cognitions or behaviours in response to feelings of FoMO (Milyavskaya et al., 2018). One way is to increase one's mindfulness, as consumers are less likely to think of what others are doing when they are consumed with their current activities (Milyavskaya et al., 2018).

A great advantage is that information gathered through this study was on real post-purchase cognitions, emotions, and behaviour, and not only on intentions. Hence, insight given on the consequences of FoMO appeals is considered key for practitioners in the decision-making process of consumers that leads to millions of purchases worldwide (Aydin et al., 2019). Marketers need to reduce regret by offering return or exchange policies, as regret is accompanied by short-term dissatisfaction which later leads to bringing down repurchase intention and referral (Bui et al., 2011; Butkouskaya et al., 2021; Inman et al., 1997; Jalonen & Jussila, 2016; Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011; Tsiros & Mittal, 2000; Rajagopal et al., 2019; Spiteri Cornish, 2020). Another study found that cognitive dissonance could be reduced by utilizing emotional branding, as customers show their gratification after a purchasing decision when they are emotionally attached to a particular brand (Akbar et al., 2020).

Practitioners should also consider ethicality when using marketing appeals, specifically regarding vulnerable segments, as it may cause major harm (Smith, 1990). Material well-being affects the overall well-being as individuals tend to compare themselves to those who have the most in society (Csikszentmihalyi, 1999). Thus, as income gap increases in developed countries, more populations become unhappy when comparing their *status quo* with the very rich on social media (Csikszentmihalyi, 1999). (Ger, 1997) argues that awareness of high levels of consumption in developed countries is responsible for stimulating envious discontent. Due to the progressive beliefs about envy, FoMO is believed to surface (Mcdermott, 2017). Recently, consumers regarded FoMO appeals as manipulative strategies that need to be offset (Hodkinson, 2019).

Marketers need to examine the ethics of their marketing practices (Laczniak & Murphy, 2006; Lascu & Zinkhan, 1999; Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008) and be accountable for the strategies they use that trigger impulsive buying behaviour which can be detrimental to consumer well-being (Spiteri Cornish, 2020). Authors claim that it is "illegal not to provide disclaiming language when marketing messaging in any environment could affect health, safety or the financial well-being of potential customers in receiving messages" (Russel & Rogers, 2019, p. 119). Critical marketing would attempt to question the extent to which specific claims made in support of marketing practices affect society (Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008) as unethical companies seldom finish first and often do not survive (Laczniak & Murphy, 2006).

7.3. Limitations and future research

Regardless of the intense use of FoMO appeal by advertisers and marketers, there are seldom academic articles that explore thoroughly the consumer response to FoMO-based advertising appeal (Hodkinson, 2019). Despite the existence of FoMO scales, the researchers were more interested in investigating the FoMO phenomenon and its consequences on consumer behaviour. Hence, the study is exploratory in nature with the aim to contribute with rich insightful descriptions on Fomsumers' post-purchase cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses towards FoMO appeals (Daymon & Holloway, 2011). The study's reliance on CIT as a qualitative method has advantage over quantitative methods in capturing authentic details (Gremler, 2004) to enrich the comprehension of Fomsumers' responses to FoMO-induced appeals. (Chell & Pittaway, 1998). Yet, the use of quantitative method will assess cause-and-effect relationships (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004), and thus fill in gaps (Bryman, 2006).

This brings us to the importance of furthering this study to examine the conceptual model proposed using quantitative method. The concept of Fomsumer will need to be supported by quantitative studies for it to be well-defined and further the effectiveness of FoMO appeal by examining post-purchase consequences when being exposed to FoMO appeals (Argan et al., 2018). Future studies should aim to measure the relationship between FoMO appeal and Fomsumer´s post-purchase responses, using quantitative method. The new FoMO scale proposed by Zhang et al.

(2020) could be very useful to examine the consequences of FoMO in both consumption contexts, online and offline.

Fomsumers were found to differ in their post-purchase behavioural responses and were accordingly segmented into four typologies. Devotee Fomsumers and Shopaholics showed tendency to become loyal to brands through their repurchase intentions despite dissatisfaction and sadness encountered post-purchasing. On the other hand, Butterfly Fomsumers showed negative behavioural responses towards FoMO appeal for they reported refraining from repeating purchases, engaging in negative referrals, and unfollowing influencers due to lack of trust. These findings could be explored further by deepening the knowledge about each Fomsumer type. Besides, scholars could test mediating and moderating variables such as, loyalty, trust, and brand image and the influence they have on the relationship between FoMO appeal and post-purchase responses. Furthermore, self-regulation has been shown to control levels of FoMO (Alt & Boniel-Nissim, 2018; Russel & Rogers, 2019) and impulse buyers' urge to make unplanned instant purchases (Vohs et al., 2008). It would be beneficial to examine self-control and its relation with FoMO tendency in future studies. It is highly appealing for researchers not to miss out on the plenty of opportunities mentioned above for future studies.

Interviews were done through the phone due to its convenience when it is not possible to reach the participants directly (Creswell, 2007). Also, phone interviews reduce data collection costs and facilitate geographical reach of participants (Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004). However, when going through phone interviews, the researcher cannot vividly observe participants' body language (Creswell, 2007), and hence, it would be interesting for further studies to rely on face-to-face method that would help build rapport and establish personal connection between the interviewer and the interviewee through the comfortable and relaxed atmosphere the method provides (Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004). Besides, face-to-face method can provide insight into the participants' personality, attitude, and level of confidence, which can be difficult to assess through other forms of interviews (Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004).

The study relied on non-probability purposive sampling to interview Fomsumers who could provide rich insight into the post-purchase cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses towards FoMO appeals. Although the sample size is within the literature recommendations (Flanagan, 1954; Daymon & Holloway, 2011), and the saturation of the codes was reached before interview number 57, more efforts should be made to find out whether the current study's findings are equivalent in

more diverse samples. Moreover, the study focused only on youngsters as a sample because FoMO is more evident in youngsters (Przybylski et al., 2013). It would be extremely beneficial if older generation is explored as they seem to have growing marketing potential (Jupowicz-Ginalska, 2019). In fact, a study found that "45+ cohort are becoming gradually aware users of the Internet" who enjoy advertising messages (Jupowicz-Ginalska, 2019, p. 80).

Subjectivity is a characteristic of research in social sciences; still, it does not mean free will (Chell & Pittaway, 1998). In this study, some care was taken through applying intercoder reliability to mitigate arbitrary subjectivity, and in order to increase the credibility of the interpretation and discoveries. However, it is natural that the researcher's interpretation has introduced some biases (Gremler, 2004). One way to mitigate this problem would be to integrate the participants in the validation of the interpretation (Edvardsson, 1992; Edvardsson & Roos, 2001). In this way, future studies could rely on questionnaires for participants to fill, in order to give confidence in the results, and generalize the outcome (Bryman, 2006).

Having the research conducted among Egyptian consumers as participants limit the possibility of transferability to other regions. The research is conducted among members of a collectivist culture (Egypt) (Li et al., 2020; Markus & Kitayama, 2010; Shavitt & Barnes, 2020). Hence, replicating this investigation in other regions would be of widespread interest and ample importance. To add, this study has been exploring FoMO appeal on tangible goods. It is advisable to explore FoMO appeal on services and experiences as well.

7.4. Final thoughts

FoMO appeals have become a significant factor in shaping consumer behaviour, especially in the context of social media. Academic research has contributed significantly to understanding the mechanism, response, and consequences of consumers towards FoMO appeals. It is essential to consider the impact of FoMO on the overall well-being of individuals. Findings show that Fomsumers may experience cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses when exposed to FoMO appeals. The study concluded that when getting exposed to FoMO-induced appeals, Fomsumers are becoming

Butterflies, by ending the existing relationship they have with the brand and looking for other brands to interact with.

Hence, practitioners are ought to consider the ethical implications of their marketing practices, as manipulative strategies that trigger impulsive buying behaviour can be detrimental to consumer well-being. Marketers must hold accountability for the strategies they use that may cause a significant negative outcome for stakeholders affected by the transaction. Moreover, practitioners should take into account the general well-being of consumers and help them deal with such experiences, perhaps by altering their cognitions or behaviours in response to feelings of FoMO. One way to achieve this is by increasing mindfulness, as consumers are less likely to think of what others are doing when they are consumed with their current activities.

To conclude, FoMO appeals have significant implications for consumer behaviour and well-being. Practitioners must utilize these appeals ethically and responsibly, while also considering the potential impact on consumer well-being. By doing so, companies can establish a positive reputation and build long-term relationships with their consumers, which can ultimately lead to increased customer loyalty and higher profitability.

8. References

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9. Appendices

Appendix 1: Prior FOMO-related marketing and consumer behaviour academic studies

Lecture	Objectives	Main findings and conclusions
2023		
(Neumann et al., 2023)	Examine how FOMO and the degree of active participation on Instagram interact to affect consumers' product attitudes.	Consumers who are more active on social media and had high (vs low) Fear of Missing Out expressed more favourable attitudes toward online products after being exposed to s content (vs not exposed).
(Maccarrone-Eaglen & Schofield, 2023)	Examining the impact of social media use and its addiction on Compulsive buying behaviour, together with the moderating influence of self-efficacy (SEF), through a comparative analysis of heterosexual and LGBT+ consumers.	Both heterosexual and LGBT+ non-compulsive consumers could be vulnerable to compulsive buying addiction through social media exposure and the fear of missing out.
2022		
(Zhang et al., 2022)	Examining the mediation (fear of missing out) and moderation (bandwagon) in the relationship between scarcity and impulse buying.	Scarcity makes consumers fear missing the chance of getting protective medical equipment, leading ultimately to impulse buying. The scarcity effect on consumers' impulse buying was found to depend on other consumers' follow up behaviour in such emergency situations.
(Prentice et al., 2022)	Investigate the antecedents and consequences of panic buying	Antecedents, namely, government, media and peer influence were significantly related to panic buying, which in turn had a significant influence on panic buyers' psychological outcomes including a sense of security and guilt. FOMO was not a significant determinant of panic buying behaviour. The moderating effects of the retail intervention varied across the different product categories.
(Bui et al., 2022)	Understanding how the FoMO phenomenon influences positive (negative) mood, information overload, social media satisfaction, and engagement with social media advertising.	FoMO as a negative feeling can trigger negative mood depending on the level of need to belong. FoMO can boost social media inter- activity but also trigger information overload and decrease social media satisfaction. High level of information overload can decrease social media users' advertising engagement due to elevated negative emotions
(Argan et al., 2022)	Explores the underlying psycho-social motivations of consumer-centric fear of missing out (FoMO) and, in turn, its effects on consumption behaviour.	FoMO mediated the relationship between consumer characteristics (need for uniqueness and independence), and consumption behaviour (conspicuous and conformity) Findings revealed negative effects of consumer independence on consumer-centric FoMO, whereas CNFU had a counter-intuitive positive effect,
(Gupta &	Exploring the long-term changes in consumers'	FoMO has led to increased use of e-commerce

Lecture	Objectives	Main findings and conclusions
Mukherjee, 2022)	retail shopping behaviour, due to their experiences of the Covid-19 pandemic.	and engagement in herd consumption during COVID 19
(Dinh & Lee, 2022)	Examining the impact of the imitation of influencers on customer buying intention toward endorsed products, which is mediated by social comparison, materialism, and the fear of missing out (FOMO).	Limitation of influencers has a significant impact on social comparison, materialism, and FOMO, which affect buying intention toward endorsed products. Highlighting critical role of FOMO in explaining buying intention toward endorsed products in the context of social media influencers.
(Ilyas et al., 2022)	Examine the role of FOMO as a marketing concept that is expected to use FOMO as an encouragement to create a desire to buy and further encourage the creation of satisfaction from purchases based on the FOMO.	Social media content can increase fear of missing out (FOMO), encouraging consumers to make purchases. Purchasing decisions influenced by FOMO can provide satisfaction for consumers as perceived favourability and Self-relevance can significantly influence FOMO compared to personal traits (fears, worries, and anxieties).
(Xi et al., 2022)	Aims to examine how FOMO influences consumer preferences for posting about identity-relevant products on social media.	When consumers experience FOMO, they prefer to post about identity-relevant (vs functional) products to a greater extent than usual. Consumers with high (or low) self-esteem tend to be more motivated to present themselves positively (or to avoid social attention) when experiencing FOMO. The interaction between FOMO and consumer self-esteem is most likely to exert an effect when consumers receive many supportive interactions.
2021		
(Good & Hyman, 2021)	Pre-test the service context's realism and to identify common themes and variables for further investigation of FOMO- laden appeals on purchase likelihood in a hedonic service/experience context.	FOMO-laden appeals strengthen purchase intentions by boosting consumers' anticipated elation and self-enhancement or weaken purchase intentions by boosting anticipated expense regret. consumers may experience less FOMO-related discomfort when they use anticipated expense regret as a coping mechanism.
(Li et al., 2021)	Explores the roles of influencers, informational incentives, and fear of missing out (FoMO) in the relationships between social commerce platform use and consumer mental health.	Influencer expertise and interactivity, informational incentives and FoMO have a significant impact on consumers' continued use of social commerce platforms. Materialism has no significant effect on consumer social commerce platform use. FoMO mediates the relationships between informational incentives and continued use of social commerce platforms. Consumers' continuous use of social commerce platforms has a strong relationship with mental health. Continued use of social commerce platforms can lead to intense social engagement, as well as more severe outcomes such as psychological anxiety and compulsive buying.

Lecture	Objectives	Main findings and conclusions
(Jefimova & Parts, 2021)	Identify consumers' attitudes towards the possibility of missing out a product and to draw conclusions as to whether and how the fear of missing out a product influences consumer behaviour in Estonia.	FoMO is more effective with hedonic products and services. People aged 25 to 29 are most affected by the fear of missing, because their shopping behaviour is more impulsive, and they are more affected by various campaigns.
(Zhang et al., 2021)	Investigates the impact of the scarcity of medical protective products on consumers' impulsive purchasing during the pandemic in China based on the mediating effect of FoMO and bandwagon effect.	Fear of missing out, perception and bandwagon dominate the scarcity effect on impulsive purchasing.
2020		
(Kim et al., 2020)	Grounded in SDT, this study investigates the phenomenon of FOMO as a factor affecting behaviour and experience surrounding sport event consumption.	FOMO can boost sport media viewing intention through two mechanisms: by directly stimulating intention and by lifting the negative effect of constraints on intention. FOMO-driven consumption shows a stronger link to extrinsic than intrinsic rewards. FOMO is identified as a meaningful extrinsic motive for sport event consumption though its effects on consumer satisfaction
(Hayran et al., 2020)	Explore FOMO and its behavioural consequences.	FOMO poses a threat to loyalty by decreasing one's intentions to repeat a current experience and may decrease the valuation of the current experience. FOMO is distinguished from regret, anticipated regret, envy, and social exclusion. FOMO may even be experienced during highly enjoyable experiences.
(Kang et al., 2020)	Examine why Chinese consumers show herd consumption behaviour toward certain luxury brands.	Empirical model that explains how social identity needs, including self-esteem and recognition needs, have a greater influence than emotional needs do on the brand involvement level. FoMO is responsible in herd consumption behaviour toward certain luxury brands.
(Yim et al., 2020)	Fill a gap in sport marketing knowledge about millennial sport fans by exploring the traits that might influence their decision making related to sport consumption.	Five traits of millennial fan consumption: (a) technology-driven, (b) community-driven, (c) peer pressure (FoMO), (d) emotional consumption, and (e) fan engagement. Millennial scored higher than the 5 consumption traits than other generations. Consumption pattern between Millennials and generation X are very similar.
(Osemeahon & Agoyi, 2020)	Explores the effect of FOMO and smartphone use on consumer engagement in social media brand communities, which the study hypothesizes to affect consumer loyalty.	FOMO can be applied in the online brand community context. Fear of missing out and smartphone use influence consumer engagement, which in turn influences consumer loyalty in social media brand communityes.

Lecture	Objectives	Main findings and conclusions
		Smartphone use was found to mediate the impact of fear of missing out on consumer engagement.
(Zhang et al., 2020)	Extend the theoretical conceptualization of FOMO to include a personal dimension. Develop a psychometric scale to measure FOMO.	FoMO is conceptualized as the FOMO on a consumption experience that can enhance or maintain the self-concept. FoMO involves a personal and a social dimension. FOMO as a feeling that individuals can experience in any setting, online and offline. Individuals may fear missing out on any type of consumption experience that is related to enhancing or maintaining their self-concept. Provide preliminary support for the bidimensional conceptualization of the FOMO.
(Kang & Ma, 2020)	The study combines FoMO levels (high/low) and product category (luxury/necessity) to explain bandwagon consumption behaviour.	The combination of high FoMO and luxury shows the strongest bandwagon consumption behaviour. There are significant differences toward bandwagon consumption based on an individual's level of FoMO and product categories.
(Good & Hyman, 2020)	Explore FOMO within a marketing context by testing the effect of a FOMO-laden appeal versus a non-FOMO-laden appeal on purchase intention, Emotional antecedents of FOMO influenced by a FOMO-laden appeal, which may alter FOMO and its effect on purchase likelihood, are examined.	Close friends' or family members' FOMO-laden appeals can increase a person's FOMO, which in turn can increase the likelihood of acquiring a recommended experience. Anticipated elation – a positive emotion – and envy strongly influenced FOMO and ultimately purchase likelihood. Comforting rationalizations lower FOMO
(Saavedra & Bautista, 2020)	Explored the effect of fear of missing out (FoMO) on Generation Z's consumption behaviour of masstige brand apparel.	FoMO affected motivation and the belief-based constructs of Theory of Planned Behaviour, except for behaviour and perceived behavioural control. The construct of FoMO affects the deliberative process of the purchasing behaviour of Generation Z consumers.
2019		
(Çelik et al., 2019)	Effects of FoMO tendencies on impulse purchasing and post-purchase regret, and the effects of impulse purchasing on the post-purchase regret	FoMO tendency in sales affects impulse purchasing and impulse purchasing has an influence on post-purchase regret. FoMO tendency differed significantly from the variables of level of education and marital status.
(Kang, Son, et al., 2019)	Focuses on the FoMO phenomenon to mature the discussion on culturally symbolic brands evaluation.	FoMO has the strongest influence on brand excitement for culturally symbolic brands FoMO is used in the offline world

Lecture	Objectives	Main findings and conclusions
(Kang, Cui, et al., 2019)	Focuses on the FoMO phenomenon as a tool for explaining consumers' conformity consumption and examines what causes it	Conceptual framework of how FoMO affects conformity consumption. FoMO is used in the offline world. FoMO can be distinguished from two kinds of psychological traits, one is the desire for belonging and the other one is anxiety of isolation. The reinforcing stability caused from the desire for belonging and increasing concern from the anxiety of isolation result in up-surging of interest on culturally associated brands and at last leads to conformity consumption.
(Hodkinson, 2019)	Investigate consumer response mechanisms related to externally initiated FoMO Appeals	FoMO appeal relevant theories are self-control "regret" and SDT. Emotive and cognitive themes present in the pre- and post-decision phases of responding to FOMO appeals. FoMO response conceptual model
(Suresh & Biswas, 2019)	Obtain a comprehensive understanding of interrelations between Compulsive Buying in an online space and Internet Addiction	Emotions like loneliness, depression, low self-esteem, and anxiety encourage the respondents to go ahead and maintain relationships in a virtual space. The growing Internet Addiction can also be positively related to online Compulsive Buying.
(Aydin et al., 2019)	Investigate the relationship between compulsive buying (CB), biological rhythm, impulsivity, and FoMO	Morning-type individuals reported lower scores on the CBS, impulsivity, FoMOs, anxiety, and stress than evening-types or neither-types. Compulsive buyers reported significantly greater levels of impulsivity, depression, anxiety, and fear of missing out
(Russel & Rogers, 2019)	Examine relationships between engagement with social media ads, anxiety, depression, self-regulation and (FOMO) in college females.	Results reveal an interaction whereby engagement with social media ads is associated with better psychological outcomes for those with higher self-regulatory function, but poorer outcomes for those with reduced self-regulation of spending. Such results point to the growing need for a nuanced, and likely digitally enhanced, approach to engaging in ethical advertising practices.
2018		
(Argan & Tokay-Argan, 2018)	Conceptualize the Fomsumerism in terms of consumer behaviour and to discuss this phenomenon, concept, or theory.	The notion that fomsumerism in general represents the hidden patterns of consumption behaviour of social media in today's world. Young tend to be Fomsumers much more so than Middle Ages or older people. Shares and selfies on SNS contribute to consumer's well-being.
(Argan et al., 2018)	Draw a general framework for Fomsumer behaviour based on a conceptual approach towards the concept of Fomsumer	Outlines differences Fomsumers may display compared to traditional consumers before, during and after decision-making process.

Lecture	Objectives	Main findings and conclusions
		Higher level of social media and FoMO leads to lower satisfaction.
(Bright & Logan, 2018)	Examine how advertising factors such as attitude and intrusiveness impact social media fatigue as well as two consumer behaviour factors, fear of missing out (FOMO) and privacy.	FOMO has the greatest impact on social media fatigue. Privacy concerns continue to plague consumers and should be monitored by advertisers. Consumers experience conflicting wants regarding their need for information and their desire to avoid information overload.
(John et al., 2018)	Test-case for evolutionary theories about humans' preferences and cognitive biases regarding scarcity	Scarcity preference is a human-unique preference that develops as humans increase their cognitive skills and social experiences with peers and competitors. Scarcity preference is based on children's fear of missing out an opportunity. Supply-based scarcity increases the desirability of hedonic goods.
2017		
(Mcdermott, 2017)	Aims to explore the emotional expression of FoMO in relation to society and the self. Examines the ways in which social media allows the corporate world to market and brand objects in a seeming human self. Understand the ways that professionals use FoMO in adv and brand creation	FoMO has emerged in reaction to progressing beliefs about envy. Social media enhances FoMO as posts only portray the highlights of events. Social media as a society enables the creation of a representation of self, yet silently dictates how one behaves in this representation.
2016		
(Hayran et al., 2016)	Explore FoMO's antecedents and link it to consumer behaviour. Depict several real-life contexts where FoMO is experienced.	When favorability was high, high self-relevance group experienced higher FoMO and ultimately lower revisit intention. students in the FoMO group indicated lower willingness to attend summer school the following year and were less willing to recommend it to their friends. FoMO group indicated a lower momentary job satisfaction and lower willingness to stay for overtime work. FOMO might lead to lower valuation of one's current experience.
(Conlin et al., 2016)	Investigate the role that FoMO plays in TV viewing habits, particularly binge-watching and the consumption of one-time megaevents.	Increased merging of media and FoMO FoMO seems to be driving many of the changes that are evident in modern media consumption; part of the enjoyment of watching TV is being able to talk about it with friends, and being part of an overarching, cultural conversation.
(Abel et al., 2016)	Explores the measurement of FOMO, focusing on scale development and validation. Questions to assess behavioural and demographic characteristic were included.	Results suggest significant differences in social media consumption across levels of FOMO. Results also suggest significant differences in the use of particular social media based on one's level of FOMO
2013		

Lecture	Objectives	Main findings and conclusions
(Wiltermuth & Gino, 2013)	Examining the effects of dividing rewards into meaningless categories on individual motivation	Categorizing rewards triggers FoMO which, as a result, increases one´s motivation to buy. Also, anticipated regret mediated this relationship
(Przybylski et al., 2013)	Advance an empirically based understanding of the FOMO phenomenon. Create a robust individual difference measure of FoMO. Investigate how demographic, motivational and well-being factors relate to FoMO. Examine the behavioural and emotional correlates of FoMO.	FoMO was negatively related to age. Males tended to report higher levels of FoMO. Higher levels of FoMO report lower overall levels of life satisfaction and general mood. Less satisfaction of the needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness also reported higher levels of FoMO. FoMO was robustly associated with social media engagement.

Appendix 2: Interview guide



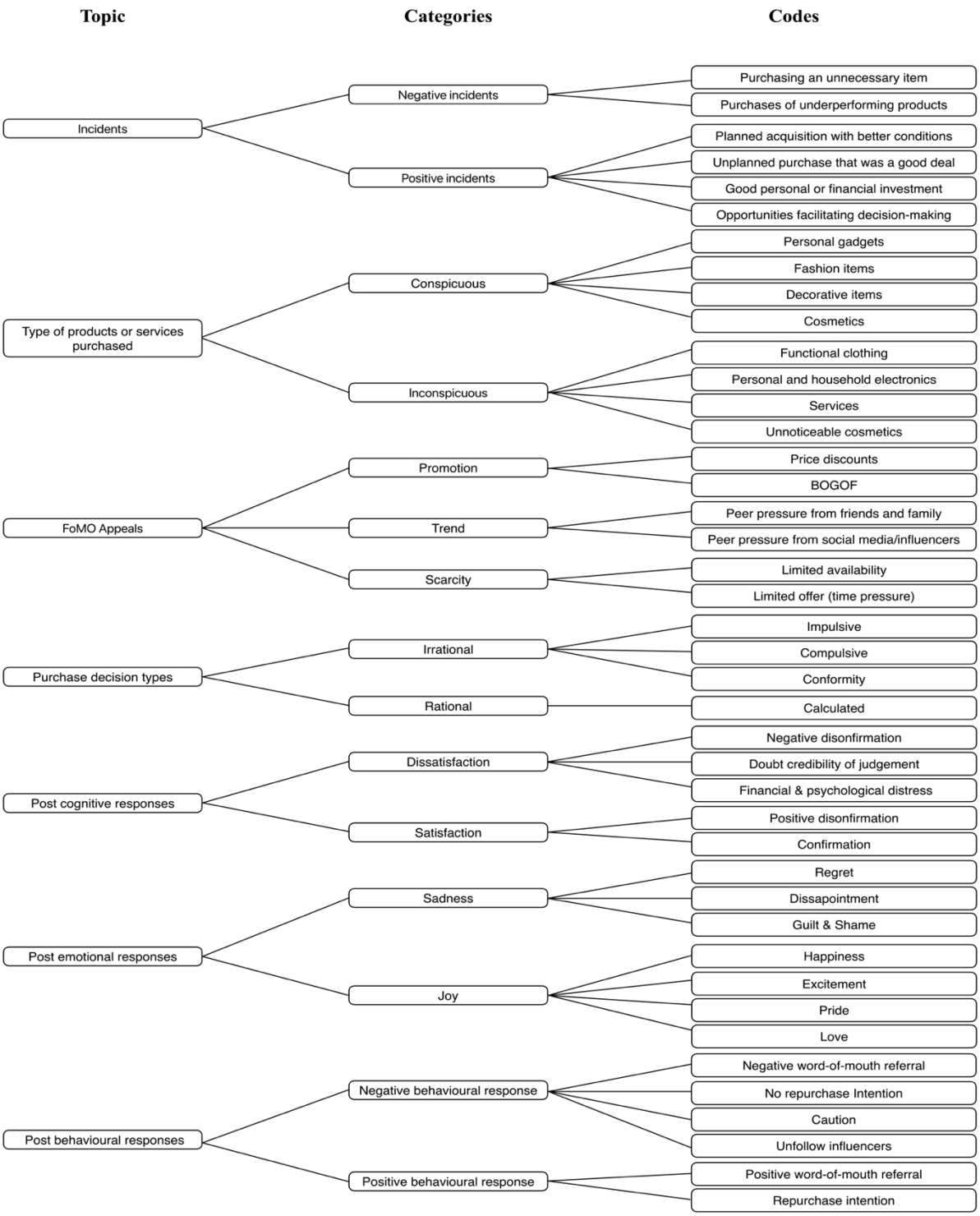
Appendix 3: Definition of concepts applied in the coding process.

Code Names	Definition	Source
Negative Incidents	Unsatisfactory experiences from the qualitative description of the circumstances surrounding the evaluation	(Gabbott & Hogg, 1996)
Positive Incidents	Satisfactory experiences from the qualitative description of the circumstances surrounding the evaluation.	(Gabbott & Hogg, 1996)
Private consumer goods	Goods that are both rival in consumption and excludable from non-payers	(Cowen, 1985)
Conspicuous	Acquisition of publicly visible goods and services costing considerably more than functionally equivalent products	(Bagwell & Bernheim, 1996)
Inconspicuous	Products that are consumed because of its functional value. Day-to-day convenient goods.	(Stern, 1962) (Poku & Abdul-Muhmin, 2017)
Nonessential	Not necessary. It is a surplus where it is seldomly used	
Underperforming Products	Underperformances occur when products do not meet consumer´s expectation in terms of quality	(Rajagopal et al., 2019)
Triggers	External stimuli which reinforce consumers making decisions	(Rook & Fisher, 1995)
Promotion	Reducing the price that a buyer must pay through offering discounts and coupons	(Sinha & Smith, 2000)
BOGOF (Buy one, get one free)	Offering more of the product at the same price "Buy One Get One Free"	(Sinha & Smith, 2000)
Trend	Emergence of a new paradigm in fashion or lifestyle	(Du & Kamakura, 2012)
Peer Pressure	Ones who belong to a certain group adapt their habits according to the peers of that group. They intentionally or unintentionally comply with the dominant traits of peers	(Clasen & Brown, 1985)
Scarcity	The state of being in short supply, rare and not easy to find	(Brock, 1968).
Buying decisions		
Impulsive	instant unplanned decision taken without forethought	(Rook, 1987)
Compulsive	chronic, repetitive, and serious buying behaviour in response to negative emotions and restlessness.	(Aydin et al., 2019)
Conformity	The propensity for an individual to comply with the group norm	(Burnkrant and Cousineau, 1975)
Rational	Purchases made with logic and guided by utilitarian motives	(Liao et al., 2009)
Cognitive responses	Thoughts encountered by Fomsumers after buying will be related to post-decision cognition	(Hodkinson, 2019)
	Perception of the degree to which the customer's expectations	

Code Names	Definition	Source
Customer Dissatisfaction	have not been fulfilled	(Balakrishnan et al., 2020)
Doubt credibility of Judgement	Believing decision taken was not the best or thinking negatively of the decision made	(Chen et al., 2015)
Negative Disconfirmation	Occurs when outcomes are poorer than expected	(Oliver, 1980)
Financial and Psychological Distress	An intense physical or mental strain that includes concerns and worries about financial matters and discomfort experiences.	(O'Neill et al., 2006) (Dang, 2020)
Customer Satisfaction	Perception of the degree to which the customer's expectations have been fulfilled	(Balakrishnan et al., 2020)
Confirmation	Occurs when product´s performance is equal to expectations	(Phillips & Baumgartner, 2002)
Positive Disconfirmation	Occurs when outcomes are better than expected	(Oliver, 1980)
Emotional responses	Emotions encountered by Fomsumers after buying will be related to post-decision emotion	(Argan et al., 2018)
Negative Emotions	summation of the different negative emotions that customers experience to arrive at an overall judgment of dissatisfaction	(Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004)
Sadness	Independent emotion that categorizes cluster of negative emotions including suffering, disappointment, shame, neglect, and sympathy	(Shaver et al., 1987)
Disappointment	negative emotion experienced when pre-purchase expectations are not met	(Yi & Baumgartner, 2004)
Regret	displeasure with the product because it was inferior to an alternative not chosen and the consumer blames oneself	(Yi & Baumgartner, 2004)
Guilt & Shame	Guilt is more 'private' experience represented by internally generated pangs of conscience, while shame is more 'public' emotion arising from exposure to disapproving others	(Tangney et al., 2011)
Positive Emotions	summation of the different positive emotions that customers experience to arrive at an overall judgment of satisfaction	(Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004)
Joy	Independent emotion that categorizes a set of other emotions including happiness, excitement, pride, and cheerfulness	(Shaver et al., 1987)
Happiness	These consumers report frequent interest and joy and infrequent occurrences of all negative emotions	(Westbrook and Oliver, 1991)
Excitement	Emotion felt regarded as thrilled and enthusiastic	(Richins, 1997)

Code Names	Definition	Source
Pride	A positive self-conscious emotion showing satisfaction from one´s own achievements	(Tracy & Robins, 2008)
Love	an emotion category that regards to high level of fondness of products, where consumers become very sentimental towards their possessions post-purchasing	(Baishya & Choudhury, 2022)
Behavioural responses	Specific actions and physiological reactions when interacting with a brand	(Brakus et al., 2009)
Negative Word-Of-Mouth Referral	Degree to which customers complain and warn against organization and its products or services	(Swan & Oliver, 1989)
Repurchase Intention	One's inclination to repurchase again in the future	(Oliver, 1980)
Positive Word-Of-Mouth Referral	Degree to which customers praise and recommend an organization and its products or services	(Swan & Oliver, 1989)

Appendix 4: Coding tree derived from content analysis



Appendix 5: Participant Consent form

Participant Consent Form

Nada Morsi
PhD Program in Business Administration
University of Minho

A STUDY ON FOMSUMER'S POST PURCHASE RESPONSE MECHANISM

Purpose of this study

The purpose of this study is to try to explore different post-purchase behaviors, emotions and cognition of consumers who make buying decisions because of FoMO appeal. The participant has the absolute right to decide whether to participate in this study. Any questions or concerns will be answered by the researcher.

Introduction

If you agree, please either sign this form or else provide verbal consent if you do not wish your name to be registered on the form. Please also indicate whether or not you are willing for your contribution to be audio recorded. Please note that this recording, a transcript of it and any relevant notes may be kept to be reused in a future project.

Please note the participant´s participation is voluntary for there will be no financial compensation for participating in the study. One may decide to leave the study at any time. The participants may also refuse to answer specific questions he/she are uncomfortable with. The participants may withdraw permission for one´s data to be used, at any time up to the 15th of March 2022, in which case notes, transcriptions and recordings will be destroyed. Withdrawal or refusal to participate will not affect your relationship with the researcher

Use of data

The findings will be used to form part of my PhD thesis, and the study may potentially be published in academic journals.

If you wish to receive a copy of the final thesis once completed, I will happily provide you with an electronic copy.

Procedures to be followed

To help with the study, I am asking you to agree to participating in a phone interview.
We can arrange a time and date which is convenient to you once you have confirmed your consent.
The duration of the interview will not exceed 30 minutes unless you desire to prolong.

Possible benefits of the study

By going through the interview, the participant will develop self-awareness of the different types of consumption behavior he/she goes through. The participant will contribute to the exploration of post-purchase responses using FoMO appeals.

Statement of Privacy and Confidentiality

In any publication based on the findings of this study, the data presented will contain no identifying information that could associate with the participant, unless the participant specifically requests to have his/her real name associated with his/her responses.

Contact Information
Telephone Number: +201157660077
Email: Nada.morsi21@aast.edu

Confirmation and consent

I confirm that I have freely agreed to participate in the research project of Nada Morsi. I have been briefed on what the study involves, and I agree to the use of the findings as described above.
I give/ do not give permission for the interview to be recorded.

I understand the recording, transcript and any notes may be archived and put on line for public use. In this case, I give my permission for including data that might identify me/provided all possible identification is removed.

Copyright Statement

By completing this form, I permit Nada Morsi to edit, copy, disseminate, publish (by whatever means) and archive my contribution to this research project in the manner and for the purposes described above. I waive any copyright and other intellectual property rights in my contribution to the study and researchers, a non-exclusive, free, irrevocable, worldwide license to use my contribution for the purposes of this project and similar future research projects.

Participant signature:

_____

Name:_____ Date:_____

I confirm that I agree to keep the undertakings in this contract.

Researcher signature:

_____

Name:_____ Date:_____